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ABSTRACT

This quarterly publication serves as a medium for the exchange of ideas regarding the planning, design, implementation, and evaluation of professional development practices at two- and four-year colleges. The four issues in volume 12 feature the following articles: (1) "The Course Syllabus Reexamined," by James O. Hammons and Jackson R. Shock; (2) "Developing an Administrative Response to Sexual Harassment in the Educational Setting," by Jerry H. Hickerson and Alex B. Johnson; (3) "Women as New Professors: Exploring Gender Consciousness," by Susan M. Drake and Vera E. Woloshyn; (4) "Mentoring New Faculty," by Cherie De Jong, Margaret Hartman, and Janet Fisher-Hoult; (5) "Practical Guide to Developing and Implementing Cultural Awareness Training for Faculty and Staff Development," by Joanne L. Smikle; (6) "Perspectives on Scholarship in Education: Undergraduate and Graduate Students' Views on Faculty Scholarship," by Terry L. Wiedmer; (7) "Toward an Exemplary Teaching Videotape Library for Faculty Development," by Erin Porter, Debra K. Meyer, and Anastasia S. Hagen; (8) "Beyond Isolationism: Faculty Orientation as a Long-Term Commitment," by Penelope Lisi, Dimitrios Pachis, and Carol Williams; (9) "Collaborative or Cooperative Learning? Complimentary Practices for Instructional Reform," by Celeste M. Brody; (10) "A Picture of Outcome-Based Clinical Teaching Effectiveness," by Kathleen Krichbaum; (11) "Reflections of a New Faculty Member," by Ruth L. Scott; (12) "Evaluating Staff Development Programs," by Cindra Smith and Barbara Beno; (13) "Program Review: A Step-by-Step Process for Positive Change," by Virginia Foxx, Suzanne Owens, Tom Sappington, and Virginia Hege Tobiassen; (14) "Teaching is 'Job Number One': New Faculty at a Comprehensive University," by Virginia Branch; (15) "Revisited: Students' Assessments of Effective Teaching Behaviors and Characteristics," by Julie A. Hughes Caplow, Judy M. Wedman, and John F. Wedman; and (16) "Faculty Perceptions of Teaching Support Center Activities," by Diane H. Jackman and Michael K. Swan. (KP)

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Karron G. Lewis, Ed.

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The JOURNAL of STAFF, PROGRAM, & ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

The Course Syllabus Reexamined—Page 5

Women as New Professors: Exploring Gender Consciousness—Page 31

Reporting the latest in professional development activities at the 2-year college, 4-year college, and university levels.

CONTENTS

VOLUME 12, NUMBER 1—SUMMER 1994

The Course Syllabus Reexamined 5

By James O. Hammons & Jackson R. Shock

A wide gap exists between what students would like to see in a course syllabus and what faculty typically include in one. This article was written to provide a thorough review of the purposes and possible components of a comprehensive course syllabus. Tips for writing each component are included together with real-life examples. Also included in the article is a discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of using this type of syllabus. The information comes from the authors' personal experiences and a comprehensive literature review.

Developing an Administrative Response to Sexual Harassment in the Educational Setting 19

By Jerry H. Hickerson & Alex B. Johnson

The United States Supreme Court has ruled that sexual harassment in the workplace includes more than the demand by someone in authority for sexual favors as a condition for employment or promotion; it now includes conduct of a sexual nature that unreasonably interferes with an individual's work performance or creates "an intimidating, hostile or offensive working environment." The authors explore this issue from the administrator's viewpoint.

Women as New Professors: Exploring Gender Consciousness 31

By Susan M. Drake & Vera E. Woloshyn

Feelings of isolation, inadequacy and of being an impostor typify both being a new professor and a woman professor's career. This study explores the experiences of eight women novice professors to discover a grit and determination that allowed them to transcend these negatives. Gender consciousness was important to their success.

Mentoring New Faculty 41

By Cherie De Jong, Margaret Hartman & Janet Fisher-Hoult

Retaining new faculty is a critical concern at many institutions of higher learning. A university mentoring program that addressed this problem has produced positive results.

***Book Reviews*—Pragmatic Presidents and Effective Chairs** 51
***On Teaching*—Acquiring Expertise in Specific Content Areas** 57
***Chalk Dust*—Students on the Line** 61

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By James O. Hammons & Jackson R. Shock

The Course Syllabus Reexamined

A wide gap exists between what students would like to see in a course syllabus and what faculty typically include in one. This article was written to provide a thorough review of the purposes and possible components of a comprehensive course syllabus. Tips for writing each component are included together with real-life examples. Also included in the article is a discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of using this type of syllabus. The information comes from the authors' personal experiences and a comprehensive literature review.

> *"Does this course have a prerequisite?"*
> *"How many tests will we have?"*
> *"What do I have to do to earn an 'A'?"*

SOUND familiar? These are typical of the questions students will ask if your syllabus does not include the answer to these and a myriad of other questions. If you're finding yourself spending valuable class time answering questions of this type (and then explaining your answers), maybe it's time to take a second look at your course syllabus.

The purpose of this article is to provide, in one place, a resource for both new and experienced faculty who are interested in a comprehensive review of the purposes and components of a course syllabus. Since no resource material would be complete with "how-to" advice and a discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of each recommended component of a syllabus, that information will also be included.

The original stimulus for this article was observations made by the first author in the process of reviewing a sample of course syllabi on a community college campus as part of an outcomes assessment. Later, while teaching a graduate course in college teaching, he asked his students to obtain and analyze samples of syllabi. In the course of discus-

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sions about the syllabi with these students, it became quite obvious that a wide gap existed between what students would like to see in a course syllabus and what most faculty typically included in one. At the time the discrepancy was noted, the first author already had developed a long list of recommended components of a syllabus, but they were based on experience. To validate the list, Jack Shock, his graduate assistant (and an experienced college faculty member), agreed to conduct a search of the literature to find helpful materials about the syllabus. These references, combined with conversations with students and faculty about the syllabus and the authors' own experiences, provided the basis for the article. We hope that you and your students will benefit from reading it. We and our students have learned much in the process of writing it.

Purposes of a Syllabus

Above all else, the syllabus is a means for improving communication between the instructor and the student. Altman and Cashin (1992) suggest that the syllabus should communicate two kinds of information: that which students need to have at the beginning of the course and that information that the instructor (or his/her students) needs to have in writing. Naturally, the determination of what information students need to have at the beginning of the course is up to each instructor. We believe that if the material is contained within a syllabus and is communicated effectively, later communication problems can be prevented.

In an era when the student is increasingly asking to be viewed as a consumer, a syllabus containing the catalog description, a topical outline of content, an abbreviated calendar containing tentative dates, and a list of readings is no longer sufficient. Given the time and money students invest in a typical college course, and the concern of today's students about being adequately prepared, this should not come as a surprise.

In addition to meeting student expectations, a well-designed syllabus also shows that you have spent time planning and organizing the course. By modeling good planning and organization you are setting a good example. (In today's jargon, you are "walking the talk."). Both authors have found, repeatedly, that they were much more likely to get what they expected when they modeled it. Both consistently get more and better work from their students than most of their colleagues, some of whom project an image of disorganization and confusion and often receive the same from students. In short, the adage "Do as I say and not as I do" just doesn't seem to work in today's classroom.

Finally, and perhaps most importantly, your efforts show you care—about teaching and about students and that you recognize the value of their time. By demonstrating that you care about teaching, you significantly improve the likelihood that your students will also show that they care about meeting your expectations. By taking the time to include clear and concise information they need to complete course requirements, you provide evidence that you are aware of their time constraints—and increase the probability that they will meet your requirements—on time!

Components of a Syllabus

Desirable components of a course syllabus that meets or exceeds student expectations are described below. We have provided examples for those components that might be unfamiliar.

Basic Information About the Course and the Instructor. This section of the syllabus should include the course name, the course number, the number of credits, the days and times of the class meetings, and the room number or location where the course will meet. This section should also include useful information about the instructor including instructor's name, office location, office hours, and office telephone numbers. If you choose to include a home telephone number, we recommend that you include information about any restrictions on its use. For instance, is it acceptable for students to call after 10:00 p.m. or before 8:00 a.m. and should they first attempt to contact you at your office?

Course Description. A brief description of the course should be given in this section. As a minimum, this description should contain the official course description as supplied in the college catalog.

Course Rationale. This component should include the purposes of the course; should explain how and where this course fits into the students' degree program; and should show how taking the course will benefit them. In short, after reading this section, students should have no questions about whether or not they should take the course. An example of a course rationale follows:

Sample Rationale for a Course in University Physics I

> Physics 221 and 222 are the first two semesters of a three-semester sequence designed to provide a complete overview of the basic concepts of physics. The University Physics I and II sequence is a requirement for students majoring in physics, chemistry and most other physical science degree programs as well as all branches of engineering. University Physics I is also often recommended for students interested in pursuing programs of study in the life sciences, including pre-med and pre-vet programs. The third semester, covering modern physics, is a junior-level course and is therefore not available at a community college; it is usually taken only by physics majors in a four-year college or university.
>
> Physics 221 covers what is often termed **classical,** or **Newtonian mechanics.** Included is the basic study of motion (kinematics) in which you will learn the basic techniques for analyzing translational (straightline) and rotational (circular) motion, how to determine the forces which cause that motion, and

how to set up the mathematical equations that describe it. The concepts of work, energy, and equilibrium (static and dynamic) will also be explored as they apply to kinematics and to wave phenomena such as sound and other mechanical disturbances. Concepts of fluid flow and thermodynamics, which are often dealt with in the first semester at other schools, will not be included in this course, in order that we may study the other topics in greater depth. Instead, fluid flow and thermodynamics are the first topics that will be covered in the second semester of this sequence (PHY 222).

Prerequisites / Corequisites. Prerequisite or corequisite courses that are requirements for your course should be listed in this section. Additionally, you should be quite specific about the specific knowledge and skills students will need to succeed in the course. If you communicate clearly about what previous courses are needed, and what specific previous knowledge and skills are required, your students can realistically assess their readiness to enroll in the course. An example of a prerequisite statement follows:

Illustrative Prerequisite Statements for a Course in Electronics

a. Ontario Secondary School Graduation Diploma at or above general level, or equivalent, or mature student status.

b. Grade 12 English, at least general level.

c. Grade 12 Mathematics for Technology, at least general level.

d. One senior science or technological science, at least general level, with physics strongly recommended.

e. One senior program-related technical course such as Electronics or Computer Science, or a second senior science.

f. Passing grade in the Mathematics Diagnostic Pre-Test.

g. Completion of the English Placement Pre-Test.

Course Goals/Objectives. This section should tell students what they should learn from the course. There are two ways of doing this. The first is to do so in terms of general outcomes and reserve the statement of more specific outcomes for later. In this instance the instructor typically writes one to three goals for each unit in the course. Thus, in a course containing 10 units there might be as few as 10 goals, or as many as 30. An example of a course goal follows:

Sample Goal for a Course in College Teaching

In general terms, the course is intended to give you experience in learning how to plan efficiently and systematically for classroom instruction.

In some instances, you may wish to use the syllabus to express all the specific learning objectives of the course. Given that a typical three credit course divided into 8-15 units might contain as many as 40-200 objectives, we recommend that you organize and list them by unit. Some examples of objectives follow:

Sample Course Objectives for a Course in College Teaching

1. State the major premise and specific assumptions underlying the Hammons' systems approach to instruction.

2. Draw the Hammons' systems model of instruction and, in your own words, briefly explain the various elements of the model.

3. Given several hypothetical situations involving a student's progression through an instructional unit, use the Hammons' systems model to identify possible causes/solutions.

4. Given a series of statements regarding questions/issues about using a systems approach to instruction, answer any one of them to your instructor's satisfaction.

Resources. List required and optional textbooks, supplies, and other materials needed for the course. Ideally, this section should also include a statement informing students of locations where the textbooks or other resource materials can be obtained.

Conduct of the Course. As a minimum, this section should describe the various instructional techniques used in the course. Ideally, it might elaborate as to why these methods were chosen. For example:

Sample Conduct Statement for a Course in COBOL Programming

Class time will be a combination of lecture, discussion and practice. There will be a variety of handouts to supplement the text. Using the sample programs provided, you will be given an opportunity to practice the new features in class before applying them in the assignments. Assignments will be reviewed in detail and some class time will be spent on design strategies and tips for completing the assignments.

Lab time will be available for individual consultation with the instructor. By making steady progress on the assignment prior to each lab, you will be prepared to get the individual help you need to complete the assignments. The course assignments are designed to fit together into a complete COBOL Business System.

The instructor has a number of additional COBOL textbooks available for student use. The course text has limited information on some of the more advanced features. You may find some of the other texts more helpful in some cases. The *Introduction to Business Programming Using PASCAL* book used in first year is also a useful reference for COBOL.

If the course is designed to be self-paced or if part of the learning activities will take place elsewhere (laboratory, etc.), tell the student about it here. This section is also the place to discuss the availability of tutors, audio/visual materials, independent study labs, texts on reserve, and any required or optional field trips, seminars, or guest lectures that are planned.

Evaluation Procedures. In this section explain your plans for any diagnostic, formative, and summative evaluation measures. As an **absolute minimum**, spell out what students must do to earn an "A", "B", "C", etc., in the course and the criteria that will be used in assessing their performance.

Details about the nature of tests and the procedures followed in administering them should also be explained in this section. Students should know if examinations will test memory, understanding, the ability to synthesize, the ability to apply knowledge in a new context, etc., and the type of test questions (essay, short answer, etc.) you will write. As an example, consider the following:

Sample Evaluation Requirements

There will be three equally weighted examinations and two individual projects. The first examination will be scheduled for week five. The second examination will be scheduled for week ten. The third examination will be scheduled for the last class meeting.

The tests will be cumulative in nature. They will cover all readings, lectures, presentations, and field experiences done prior to that time. Tests one and two will be made up of multiple choice, fill-in-the-blanks, matching, and short answer (50 words or less) questions. Test three will be an essay exam.

Individual projects:

1) A 2000-3000 word typed paper based on library research about an approved course-related topic.

2) A ten to fifteen minute oral presentation in class on the same topic as your written paper.

Points Available Worksheet

Week # 5	Exam I	90 points________
Week #10	Exam II	90 points________
Week #13	Paper	90 points________
Week #14	Presentation	40 points________
Week #15	Exam III	90 points________

Your final grade for the course will be determined by the number of accumulated points you have earned throughout the semester. Everyone starts out with an "A" in this course. You will not be competing against your classmates to maintain the "A" and there will be no curve.

The following grade scale will apply:
400-360=A
359-336=B
335-312=C
311-276=D
275-0 =F

These ranges are based on the percentages of:
90-100=A
84-89 =B
78-82 =C
69-77 =D
0-68 =F

Please use this worksheet to record your points after each examination and your paper/presentation.

Attendance. In this section, explain **your** policy on attendance. If appropriate, you may wish to simply refer to the sections of the college catalog containing the college attendance policy. If the policy is long or complicated, simply paraphrase the intent of the policy in your own words. If your policy is different, spell out your policy. In any event, students should know what your policies and procedures are on such matters as missing a class, test, or other assigned work. An example of a statement follows:

Sample Attendance Policy for a Course in Interior Design

> The stated college policy is as follows: "Students are expected to attend regularly all classes in which they are enrolled. It is also the responsibility of the student to notify the instructor of an absence, regardless of whether or not it is due to an excused college function"
>
> I believe that it is your responsibility to find out what work was done in class or what assignments were made in the class in which you were absent. No make-up lectures will be given for any absence. You must obtain and reproduce handout materials from classmates when a class is missed. In my class there are two types of absences: excused and unexcused. An absence is categorized as excluded if: I am notified by the registrar that you missed class due to college-related business; you tell me in writing for personal illness or death in the immediate family; **and** you personally consult with me the class before **or** after your absences. Excused absences do not incur any penalties.
>
> Attendance will be taken by me sometime during each class meeting. If you are not present at the time that attendance is taken, you will be counted absent for that class. Unexcused absences cause the final course average to be lowered three (3) points per absence.

Other Class Procedures. This section is the place to explain any other procedures or policies not previously discussed. For example, tell them your policies on such things as written assignments (format, length, number, copies, typed, etc.), deferred grades, penalties for late assignments, tutoring assistance, methods of contacting you outside class, and missed exams.

Academic Dishonesty. This is the place to define what you mean by academic dishonesty and to spell out your views and policies on cheating. In addition, tell students what actions you will take if, in your view, academic dishonesty occurs. Many institutions now have lengthy statements on academic dishonesty. If your institution is one of these, you may wish to paraphrase the institutional policy, simply include it in its entirety, or just refer to it. An example of a statement on academic dishonesty used by the first author follows:

Sample Academic Dishonesty Statement

> Recent events at the University have resulted in the recommendation that each instructor include a statement about academic dishonesty. My statement follows. It is taken verbatim from a paper written by Ron Gordon, a student in the college teaching course in the fall of 1988.
>
> Academic dishonesty is any behavior on the part of a student that

is intended to cause the student to indicate a level of mastery of a course that the student has not actually achieved, or any behavior which is intended to cause another student to indicate a level of mastery either higher or lower than that actually achieved. This definition can be divided into four categories of dishonesty, based upon loci of control and motivations. The four categories are:

1. Personal dishonesty-behavior with an internal locus of control and internal motivation. This is behavior in which the student acts by him/herself, for him/herself, such as plagiarism or using crib notes.

2. Cooperative dishonesty-behavior with an external locus of control and internal motivation. Here students cheat in cooperation with other students to help themselves, such as arranging to sit next to someone who will allow copying.

3. Dishonesty to help others-behavior with external locus of control and external motivation. This behavior is the opposite of number 2 above. Allowing someone to copy or taking a test for someone else are examples of such behavior.

4. Dishonesty to harm others-behavior with internal locus of control and external motivation. Here students attempt to make other students reflect lower grades so their own compare better. Interfering with another student's work is such behavior.

If I suspect academic dishonesty has occurred, I will act in accordance with the guidelines contained in the Undergraduate Studies Catalog.

Course Units/Calendar. Students consistently told us that they appreciated an outline of the content of the course and a tentative calendar of important dates. The outline need be no more than a series of descriptive phrases in chronological order while the calendar should be an approximation of major events in the course (tests, withdrawal deadlines, project due dates, etc.). An example of a course calendar follows:

Tentative Sequence
Spring 1993

Week	*Topics* (in the sequence they are covered)
1-3	Introductions. Course overview. Motivators and demotivators of student learning. Factors influencing student performance. Learning for mastery. Introduction to a systematic approach to instruction.
Jan. 15	Last day to add a full-semester course
3-4	Specifying cognitive instructional objectives
Jan. 22	Last day to drop a full semester course without having the withdrawal shown on the official record.
4-5	Selecting appropriate instructional objectives
Feb. 5	Last day for degree application for students who plan to graduate at the end of the Spring 1993 semester.
4-5	Performing a task analysis
6-7	Development of a Student-Oriented Learning Outline (SOLO)
Mar. 5	Last day to drop a full semester course
7-8	Assessing student learning
8-9	Writing and using affective objectives Paper and presentation outlines due
Mar. 15-19	Spring Break
9-10	Mastering the techniques of teaching
10-11	Developing more effective grading plans.

10-11	Developing a syllabus
11-12	Techniques for evaluating and revising instruction
11-12	Designs in educational research
12-13	Determining the effectiveness (efficiency) of a course. Paper Due.
14-15	Student presentations
16	Final

Note: The above example includes actual dates for assignments and lecture topics. All other dates are expressed in terms of Week One, Week Two, etc., thus your outline does not become outdated each term.

Appendices. Occasionally, there are lengthy or detailed materials or directions (e.g., basic bibliography, directions for reading cards, suggestions for success, criteria for presentations) that you want to make part of the syllabus. Since these are often interchangeable from course to course we find that putting them in the appendices works best.

Course/Instructor Evaluation. Explain your plans for obtaining student feedback, your opinions about the importance of these data to you, and how you plan to use the data. In the event you wish to obtain feedback on your syllabus, we have listed below drafts of possible directions and questions for use in determining student reactions.

Example of Possible Questionnaire for Determining Student Reaction to your Syllabus

Possible Directions

This questionnaire was designed to assist me in improving the syllabus attached to this form. Please be candid in your responses since your comments are the major source used in revising and improving this syllabus. Your answers will not affect your grade in the course.

Possible Questions

Please respond to each of the following statements using this code:

5-Strongly Agree
4-Agree
3-Undecided or Don't Know
2-Disagree
1-Strongly Disagree

I feel it was helpful to have a syllabus this detailed	1	2	3	4	5
I used the syllabus after the initial discussion of it during the first class period	1	2	3	4	5
The instructor did a good job of explaining what the syllabus was designed to do and how it could be of use to me	1	2	3	4	5
I believe that other instructors should use this type of syllabus in their courses	1	2	3	4	5
The syllabus helped me to organize my study for this course	1	2	3	4	5
The syllabus seemed to help make the instructor better prepared	1	2	3	4	5

The syllabus reduced my anxiety level because I understood the grading policies of my instructor	1	2	3	4	5
The syllabus helped me to earn a higher grade than I would have earned without it	1	2	3	4	5
Grading practices were consistent with procedures stated in the syllabus	1	2	3	4	5

All things considered, this syllabus was
- a. Not worthwhile
- b. Probably helpful to some students, but not to me
- c. Helpful to me
- d. Very helpful to me

To improve this syllabus, I would suggest:

Caveat/CYR (Cover Your Rear). In some states, the course syllabus is a written legal covenant between you and your students. If this is true, we recommend that your syllabus include a statement or "caveat" of the following sort: "The above schedule and procedures in this course are subject to change in the event of extenuating circumstances." This caveat protects you if changes in the course must be made after the syllabus is distributed.

Advantages

Students invest a great amount of time and money in taking a course. The comprehensive syllabus provides them with essential information concerning the requirements, learning objectives, etc., of the course so that he or she can make an early decision about whether or not to continue in the course. If you make your syllabus available for prospective students to review, they can decide whether or not to enroll in the course.

Today's students must balance competing demands in an already busy schedule. A comprehensive syllabus facilitates their ability to plan their schedules in advance. Additionally the increasing number of adult learners present in our classes expect (and demand) this kind of pre-planning.

This pre-planning, along with the use of a comprehensive syllabus, can be of particular value to the learning-impaired student. According to Clem (1985), a syllabus that specifies testing and evaluative procedures, due dates, and meeting times may be especially helpful to the learning-disabled student if the syllabus is verbally reviewed at the beginning of the term.

The use of a comprehensive syllabus can relieve the stress that students feel regarding expectations, requirements, etc., of the course and of the instructor.

Instructors who use a comprehensive syllabus can establish a business-like and professional atmosphere by presenting a well-prepared and organized syllabus to the class. As a consequence, students are more likely to model this type of behavior in future assignments and responsibilities.

When an instructor uses a comprehensive syllabus to explain course requirements, he or she will find it easier to defend course policies and procedures in the case of student questions or complaints about those policies and procedures.

Disadvantages

Once an instructor commits course requirements, policies, and procedures to writing, it can be difficult to make changes. One way to offset this disadvantage is to include a caveat statement in the syllabus.

An instructor may experience a loss of flexibility with the use of a syllabus that states learning objectives, schedules, exam dates, etc., in advance. Inclement weather, illnesses or other unanticipated absences on the part of the instructor, etc., further illustrate the need for a caveat statement.

The use of a comprehensive syllabus requires a great amount of pre-planning. This amount of time will probably be more than an instructor would normally spend in syllabus preparation. An advantage does accrue from this, however. Time spent in syllabus preparation before the course begins usually means time saved in lesson preparation later. Additionally, many sections of the comprehensive syllabus can be used for several classes, thus saving considerable preparation time required to produce this type of document.

In today's era of tight budgets, many schools and/or departments have had to adopt regulations and restrictions regarding the number of photocopied handouts. Where this is true, the length of a comprehensive syllabus can present a problem. The problem is exacerbated for instructors who prefer to distribute the syllabus on the first day of class since it is usually not possible to notify students to purchase the syllabus at a copy center until after the first class meeting. What can an instructor do? (Especially after you have used the smallest type and both sides of the paper?)

We found a workable answer to this dilemma in an article by Hoffman (1992). We suggest that if you, as we do, find that you must require students to purchase the syllabus, you can give them specific information during the first class meeting about where the syllabus can be bought and how much it will cost. You can then require the students to read the syllabus before the next class meeting. Hoffman gives the following written assignment for the second class meeting.

> "Please read the syllabus and review your text(s). When you have done so, please write a paragraph or two describing your expectations for the class, given what you know about yourself as a learner. Please make me aware of any special needs that you have (i.e., necessary absences, vision or hearing problems, etc.).
>
> "Next, describe any concerns which you had as you read the syllabus, as well as any assignment or area of study to which you look forward."
>
> "Finally, list three questions about the class which you would like to have answered." (page 7)

Hoffman advocates allowing the students to discuss their questions in small groups during the next class period. The group members then identify those questions that they feel the instructor should answer.

The final step would be to collect the papers and respond to each one with brief written comments. This practice, according to Hoffman, will help you get to know your students individually and to get a sense of the class as a group.

Conclusion

We end, as we began, with these questions.

"Does this course have a
prerequisite?"
"How many tests will we have?"
"What do I have to do to
earn an 'A'"

We hope we have shown how the use of a comprehensive course syllabus can help you answer these kinds of questions before they are asked. We have attempted to provide you with a blueprint for building a personalized document that will communicate all the essential information about your course that your students want to know, both at the beginning of the course and throughout the semester. It's your syllabus, tailored to your needs and the information needs of your students. We close with this prediction. If your syllabus "works" you'll be able to spend more time asking, rather than answering, questions.

(The authors would like to hear from readers who found the article helpful.)

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By Jerry H. Hickerson & Alex B. Johnson

Developing an Administrative Response to Sexual Harassment in the Educational Setting

The United States Supreme Court has ruled that sexual harassment in the workplace includes more than the demand by someone in authority for sexual favors as a condition for employment or promotion; it now includes conduct of a sexual nature that unreasonably interferes with an individual's work performance or creates "an intimidating, hostile or offensive working environment." The authors explore this issue from the administrator's viewpoint.

ADMINISTRATORS ARE CHARGED with keeping schools and colleges on track toward achievement of their primary aim, the education of their students. This requires, according to Benezet (1981), a "structure and set of operations by which the organization is led" and "a decision-making apparatus in which various members and constituencies participate with administrators to guide the organization along its way." To function well, the modern school or college, therefore, requires administrators who not only care about the institution and can work with students and faculty to provide the best possible environment for learning but can also manage policies, budgets, programs, and people.

Management of people, more accurately, is managing the conditions which allow them to employ their own talents most effectively within the context of their roles at the institution. Competent, skilled, and interesting *people* make the job of administration satisfying; they are at the heart of an institutional ideal that is often characterized as a *community*—of scholars, learners, seekers of truth—teachers teaching students, students engaged in learn-

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ing and responding to instruction, and staff committed to their roles in the overall mission of the school or college. But one confirmed, publicized incident of abuse of power and the community can fall into chaos, the spirit of each of its parts falling like dominoes, first tipped by the abuser and ultimately affecting every aspect of the institution.

Sexual harassment is one such abuse. In a school or college, where mutual respect is a requirement for success and a fundamental condition for a sense of "community," one might expect to find sanctions intrinsic in the culture of the institution dictating against this sort of misbehavior. But schools and colleges often fall short of realizing their ideals. They reflect the greater society in many ways and, typically populated by a wide cross-section of persons of many ages and backgrounds, may provide a setting in which sexual harassment is probably unavoidable at some level—between student and student, faculty and student, or staff and staff. Each grouping affords frequent opportunities for contact among various parties and a power relationship with the potential to go awry. It is no consolation that the percentage of women in colleges who experience sexual harassment—20 to 33 percent, according to the review by Maihoff and Forrest (1983)—is far less than that found in other places of work—92% of the sample in Somers' (1983) research. The harassers and the victims are products of our system of education at some level, indicating that as socializing institutions schools and colleges have done a less than acceptable job in promoting positive interpersonal relationships between the sexes and ethical conduct in the workplace.

Preparing an administrative response to this multifaceted issue is no easy task. The problem is additionally difficult because of the high degree of ambiguity which surrounds it. In her study for the Center for Sex Equity at Ohio State University, Withers (1987) stated that the confusion is the result of accepting the situation as a private matter rather than a public issue. She further observes: "The traditional socialization of men (to accept aggressive behavior) and women (to reject aggressive behavior) interferes with the interpretation of what is considered courting, flirting, or sexually harassing behaviors." Compounding, and undoubtedly contributing to, these problems is the high proportion of teenagers who are "sexually active" (72% of high school students by the time they are seniors, according to recent news reports). Wherever women and men gather, there is, consequently, potential for romantic involvement, sexual harassment, and possible confusion between them—often because, in particular, men may ignore or be unaware of many behaviors which are psychologically or physically threatening to women.

An administrative plan for addressing sexual harassment must, therefore, consider legal, social, moral, and other perspectives. And, in view of those considerations, the plan must respond to questions of definition, legal precedents, the institutional milieu, and value orientations, as well as the place of the curriculum and teaching in addressing the potential problem.

Definition

In her narrative on recent legal developments, Cole (1986) provides the legal definition of sexual harassment, formulated by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) and adopted by the United States Supreme Court in the Meritor Savings Bank, FSB v. Vinson decision:

> Unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature... when (1) submission to such conduct is made either explicitly or implicitly a term or condition of an individual's employment, (2) submission to or rejection of such conduct by an individual is used as the basis for employment decisions affecting such individual, or (3) such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual's work performance or creating an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working environment. (p. 268)

Cole adds: "Sexual harassment now includes not only harassment in which a supervisor demands sexual consideration in exchange for job benefits, but also harassment that creates an offensive environment for the employees. In addition, sexual harassment of students in institutions of higher education increasingly justifies disciplinary action against a faculty or staff member, generally under a charge of unethical conduct." (pp. 267-268)

It was the "offensive working environment" decision that sent administrators in the 1980's scurrying to review policies—or lack of policies—that might affect the psychological and social atmosphere of their institutions. While this may be a concern relating to the well-being of employees in any agency or business, schools and colleges have an additional human variable with which to contend: that is, teenagers and young adults working through personal identity issues in a society that provides, at best, mixed signals regarding male-female relationships and, at worst, an invitation to violence and blatant sexism.

The Milieu of Educational Institutions

Educational institutions provide settings where many types of interaction take place, most often associated with learning and development. These include classrooms, study areas, faculty and administrative offices, snack shops, rehearsal areas, field study sites, busses and vans providing transportation to and from school activities, and residence halls—all important to the community and its purposes. The interaction which takes place in these locations is among people involved in the educational enterprise. They include many students who are away from home for the first time, bringing different backgrounds and values to the community mix, and living for the first time in close proximity to, and often in the same building with, hundreds of persons of similar age. It is a time when dating is expected, when traditional students are at marrying age in our culture, when they wrestle with values, and particularly at the graduate level, when they work long hours closely with peers and supervisors. The faculty and staff, who have some degree of responsibility in these settings, may represent a myriad of beliefs, dispositions, values, and cultures: they may be something like mom or dad, or one's favorite high school teacher, or they may be quite different.

Such arrangements and diversity can create a rich environment for learning, developing lasting friendships, and growing in many ways. But, as Hughes (1988) suggests, there is also a "darker side to campus life." This shadow arises whenever persons are treated as objects in deference to the power of someone else—whether it is an instructor, lab supervisor, coach, date, or group—and it is manifested most frequently in harassment as an extension of the socialization of males.

While any group of college men can be involved in sexually harassing behavior, fraternities are most frequently cited. They often encourage, or require, such conduct as a virtual rite of passage for initiates and evidence of status for members. The concern is underscored in Hughes' (1988) study for the Association of American Colleges Project on the Status and Education of Women: "Many fraternity rituals have undercurrents of violence...and often have highly sexualized components in which women are portrayed primarily in a sexual capacity." (p. 4) Specific incidents include fraternity members degrading sorority pledges at parties, biting women on the breasts or buttocks, and exposing themselves before a group of women. She reports, as well, that 80 to 90 percent of reported campus gang rapes occur at fraternity parties.

Consider sexual harassment as involving *unwanted* sexual attention, and one can recognize how pervasive the problem may be on a campus. Such attention includes wet T-shirt contests and X-rated movies; anti-female signs and graffiti on doors; unwanted touching or kissing; sexual paraphernalia left near women's rooms; requests for sexual activity, sometimes shouted or chanted; sexual jokes; sexual advertising; sexually explicit pictures in public places; and the list goes on.

Complaints have at times been lodged against international students or faculty. Some may be from cultures where women are regarded as inferior to men; some may regard American women as sex objects (an orientation cultivated by acquaintance with many American movies and other popular culture, which are sources of "information" about Americans experienced by many in other countries). But, in truth, international students are usually well-behaved and enrich the college; they also tend to abide by institutional regulations. It is the aggressive and sexually harassing behavior of many

American students that most frequently endangers women and sends officials off to ponder questions about how the educational environment can reflect values more in keeping with the ideals represented by liberal learning, American social documents, and prominent religions—not to mention legislation—and direct people toward right behavior. Must one continually rationalize that "boys will be boys"?

This issue is part of a well-documented paradox in American values. As Wilkinson (1986) observes: there is a "sanction for rule-breaking assertiveness" for boys in America, and "authority, in its taming role, is (regarded as) essentially feminine and schoolmarmish." (p. 29) Educational institutions can promote this condition by disregarding it, or they can be a source for positive social change. Through example, policies, hiring practices, and the curriculum, they can create an environment in which students deal with such issues, study them, become acquainted with the lives of exemplary real or fictional persons, and learn the importance of valuing people.

Value Orientations

In the view of the harasser, the presence of a particular woman (perhaps any woman) creates a sexually charged atmosphere. Blanshan (1983) observes that the associated pervasive touching, sexually suggestive remarks, and other actions involved in overt harassment tells the woman that "she functions principally...as sexual stimulus for the harasser and that he has the power to keep her in that role. Her official role as student or professional colleague is dismissed as unimportant." (p. 16.) It takes only a few men who believe that they have the power to act in such ways to create an atmosphere of fear and apprehension. And, in groups, people act in ways that they would never act alone.

In this regard, why does there seem to be a scarcity of men actively opposing harassing behavior when it takes place? Just what kinds of people does the school or college wish to produce? What kinds of behaviors and attitudes contribute to or detract from their becoming a positive force in society? How can the school or college foster the positive behaviors and exorcise the negative? While guidelines for policy development related to sexual harassment are now widely available to educational administrators, the academic community should also review the problem in light of its own institutional values.

Developing programs and policies in response to these questions, particularly as they involve relationships and harassment, is not easy. The problems are not new, and they are persistent. Norment (1992) quotes a former president of the National Bar Association: "There has not been a time in my life since prepuberty when I have not been sexually harassed. Regardless of whether you are a Ph.D., an M.D., an attorney, or a secretary, women in all fields have been, and are being, sexually harassed." (p. 118) Inasmuch as educational settings may reinforce values which condone and promote such behavior, there is both a personal and societal price to pay, as Blanshan (1983) warns:

> Either thwarting or obstructing a person's educational and career goals may have significant economic, social, and psychological consequences. Sexual harassment is one means of blocking women's progress in these areas. When women are made to feel uncomfortable in classes where sexist jokes are continually told, when women feel that they risk a proposition or assault if they socialize with academic associates, when women are thought odd and so labeled for pursuing a male-dominated program, when women must avoid mentoring relationships to avoid pressure for sexual relationships, they are experiencing sexual harassment. The consequences of this type of sex discrimination are often the combination of decreased earning power, social isolation from peers, and lowered self-esteem. (p. 17)

The school and college must act to change this situation. They must work to counter values of "heathenishness, degradation, cruelty, and anarchy" (which were perhaps, as Wilkinson [1986] suggests, inherited from the American frontier), and foster the contending American values of "strength with virtue, honest frankness, and standing up for principle." (p. 99) Our policies and practices should direct students and staff toward pro-human attitudes and values, and intolerance of actions which demean. But can values be legislated? Certainly not completely. However, if the culture of the school or college dictates against sexual harassment and if policies and programs are in place to enforce such values, there will be changes which are likely to affect the futures of many students, both men and women, in very positive ways.

The Administrative Response

Policy Development

Largely in response to many studies of the late 1970s, according to Dziech (1991), which revealed the pervasiveness of sexual harassment on college campuses, a number of excellent guidelines were written in the 1980's to assist institutions in developing policies on sexual harassment. These include the statement of the American Council on Education, entitled *Sexual Harassment on Campus: Suggestions for Reviewing Campus Policy and Educational Programs* (December 1986); *Sexual Harassment on Campus: A Legal Compendium* (National Association of College and University Attorneys, 1988), edited by Joan Van Tol; the winter 1983 issue of the *Journal of the National Association for Women Deans, Administrators, & Counselors* (Volume 46); and the report written by Jean O'Gorman Hughes for the Association of American Colleges' Project on the Status and Education of Women, entitled *Peer Harassment: Hassles for Women on Campus* (September 1988). Moreover, the process of policy development at the University of

Iowa in 1985-86 is recounted, step-by-step by Mary Jo Small and Julia Mears in *Sexual Harassment on Campus: A Legal Compendium* (1988).

These publications emphasize the need for development of a strong policy that defines sexual harassment, makes an institution's stand against such behavior unequivocal, and provides procedures for lodging complaints, as well as potential consequences, related to violations of the policy. Such policies may be sent to institutions by state agencies or central administrative offices as a result of court rulings on sexual harassment, but there are benefits in local policy development that complements or clarifies the law in relation to the local school or college. A process for policy development which involves many constituents of the institution enhances interest, debate, and communication regarding the concern.

The process should begin with a strong public statement by the chief executive officer, that the institution is determined to address the problem and that a task force has been appointed to study and recommend a policy in this regard. The task force consists of a broad cross-section of faculty, students, and staff, including a legal authority and others who could provide personal or professional insight regarding the issue. They will discuss the problem and perhaps review policies at other institutions before writing a recommendation and submitting it to the CEO. Their statement must include a definition; an informal grievance procedure; due process, which ensures anonymity of the accuser and the accused; and recommended actions. Meek and Lynch (1983) remind policy developers that the informal grievance procedure should be sure to include *female* officials, perhaps members of the student affairs staff, as persons to whom students may report incidents of sexual harassment.

The task force submits its draft recommendation to the CEO, who reviews it and perhaps offers additional suggestions prior to sending the draft to faculty, staff, and student groups. These groups study the document and provide further recommendations. Following a review of the responses from the constituent groups, the CEO must decide about amending the original document before calling upon the experts necessary to transpose it into a regulatory policy.

Policy Dissemination

If a task force and constituent groups have been involved in preparation and review of the policy, as suggested, an excellent foundation for its dissemination is already established. Still, there must follow a formal, more systematic distribution of the policy to all persons in the institution to emphasize the seriousness of the problem. In conjunction with the dissemination event, the chief executive officer should issue a strong statement to all institutional constituents and the public that sexual harassment in any form is inappropriate and will not be tolerated.

Employees should be directed to read the document and to include it in their faculty-staff handbooks. Likewise, it should be included in the student handbook and the college catalog. Organized discussions of the policy should subsequently be a part of meetings of staff and students, annually, preferably involving an official informed about the issue and the document—for example, an affirmative action officer or dean.

Codes of Conduct

Such policies are natural extensions of the ethics of one's profession and values of the institution, and faculty and staff should know and understand the ethics of their professions relative to harassment. According to he American Association of University Professors (1984), institutions should make clear that "sexual harassment and attempted sexual duress are included under the heading of unprofessional conduct threatening to the academic freedom of others." (p. 98) Violations of such codes are typically upheld by the courts as grounds for dismissal from one's position with a college or university.

Dating and sexual involvement between consenting adults is a matter of conduct which is not clear and is frequently a difficult issue in the development and administration of a coherent and fair policy on harassment. Keller (1987) points out that freedom of association is a constitutional guarantee, even if it is a romantic association between faculty and students of legal adult age, or between employees and their supervisors. In spite of such legal arguments, the nature of student-faculty relationships comes under special scrutiny. Some colleges have made student-faculty dating a violation of acceptable faculty conduct. Keller (1987) cautions, however, that "the entire definition of amorous relationships is fraught with ambiguity, which may result in a further effect on mentorship and the social interactions that are part of a nurturing academic environment." (p. 40) Policy makers must, therefore, undertake the difficult task of carefully defining the parameters of unacceptable behavior.

Behaviors which many persons of the institution find offensive must also be addressed. These often include sexually oriented jokes, sexually explicit pictures, demeaning posters, and stories which glorify rape. They also include sexually oriented programs, presentations, or other conduct at fund-raisers, meetings, and parties sponsored by, or identified with, the institution.

Therefore, it is important that standards related to personal conduct arising from the development of institutional policy, and consequences for sexual harassment, involve and be communicated to students and student organizations. Fraternities and male clubs, in particular, must become sensitized to the issues and their leadership involved in the process of policy development and subsequent changes in behavior and values.

Responses of the Formal and Informal Curriculums

As part of the concept of an educational community, instruction should address issues involving respect for members of that community. Classes should be identified, such as "college orientation," in which sexual harassment and the institution's regulations on the subject are reviewed and discussed. In addition, these courses should be guided by standard syllabi on sexual harassment, such as the one developed by the Ohio State Department of Education (1988) for the state's public schools. It includes five 40-minute sessions around the following units: The Road to Awareness—Definitions; Suffering the Losses—Consequences; What To Do—Options; Thinking It Through—Perspectives; and Do Something—Resolutions. Similar courses of study can be developed locally.

Other appropriate classes should feature, aside from specific "harassment subject matter," discussions and presentations related to male-female relationships and socialization, ultimately focusing on values related to respect and equal opportunity. This can be accomplished within the context of many readings and concerns pertinent to philosophy, English, sociology, psychology, history, religion, and subject matter in issue-oriented core curriculums.

Moreover, the Student Affairs Office should work with the student government organization to provide special programs on the subject, in open meetings, group guidance sessions, and residence halls.

Conclusions

For a college environment to be conducive to learning, administrators must ensure protections for individuals who, because of their status, might fall prey to unsolicited sexual advances. This can be accomplished by fostering an atmosphere of mutual respect, where students, faculty, and staff (1) understand that sexual harassment will not be tolerated and (2) know that the policies which apply to such harassment will be strictly enforced.

Thus, it is not sufficient only to provide lip service to a problem that has been described by most educators as significant. Sexual harassment must be dealt with systematically and decisively. A written policy, fair to both the complainant and the accused, should be adopted that not only defines sexual harassment, but also provides an internal grievance procedure with appropriate sanctions. This policy must be disseminated widely and discussed in workshops attended by all constituents of the institution (Hurtubise, 1990).

Administrators have the important responsibility of remaining sensitive to the needs of both parties for confidentiality. In cases where sanctions are necessary, imposition must be within established disciplinary procedures, and the right to appeal the decision must be accorded as an aspect of the proceedings.

Ehrle and Bennett (1988) point out that "an academic community is first of all a human community." (p. 116) But, a charge of sexual harassment, leveled by or against a member of the academic community, can undermine the moral values which most institutions purport to covet in their mission statements.

Also, acts of sexual harassment are prohibited, as Hurtubise points out (1990), by a "patchwork of federal and state statutes ... (which promote) equal employment opportunities and protect individuals from discrimination based on sex." (p. 152) Most of these statutes hold colleges responsible for establishing and enforcing policies which guard against, review, and punish acts of sexual harassment (and discrimination). Mismanagement and negligence in handling this responsibility can expose the institution to legal action from the complainant and the accused.

It is important that administrators consider sexual harassment, not only as a direct affront to learning (given that involvement in an educational experience must be enjoyable and nonthreatening), but also as a matter which could ultimately draw the institution into a costly and highly publicized legal battle.

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By Susan M. Drake & Vera E. Woloshyn

Women as New Professors: Exploring Gender Consciousness

Feelings of isolation, inadequacy and of being an impostor typify both being a new professor and a woman professor's career. This study explores the experiences of eight women novice professors to discover a grit and determination that allowed them to transcend these negatives. Gender consciousness was important to their success.

WE ARE TWO women researchers who are new professors in a faculty of education at a small Canadian university. We have entered the profession at a time when affirmative action policies stress the hiring of women; indeed, we are aware that being a woman was probably an advantage in our own hiring situations. Given the current political emphasis to bring women into academia, there will be more and more women entering this traditionally male-dominated profession in the next few years. The purpose of this study was to explore the experience of being a new woman faculty member. A second purpose was to explore if and/or how this experience might be affected by the awareness of gender issues.

The role of the new professor is fraught with trials. It is a time of feeling overwhelmed, inadequate, isolated and without support (Boice, 1991). New professors tend to feel like impostors; that is, they do not believe that they are smart or capable enough and are worried that someone will surely find out (Brookfield, 1992). High stress levels are experienced from perceptions of insufficient time, inadequate feedback and recognition, unrealistic expectations for publishing and receiving grants, lack of collegiality with other faculty and the difficulty of balancing life inside and outside of work (Sorcinelli, 1992).

The experience of being a new professor and of being a woman professor closely parallel. Research on

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new professors indicates that the experience is more difficult for both women and members of minority groups (Boice, 1991, 1992). However, the problems tend to remain throughout a woman's career. The female academic finds she works in a cold chilly climate (Hall & Sandler, 1982) which "is still primarily a repository of white, abled, middle-class, heterosexual male experiences, perspectives, priorities, and approaches" (Litner, Rossiter & Taylor, 1992, p. 287) and where she has to struggle more than her male colleagues for identity and self-esteem. In 1964, Bernard did a large scale study with women academics finding predominant feelings of isolation and inadequacy regardless of age or experience. In 1987, Simeone replicated this study to discover the same perceptions. The same themes reappear in Caplan's study in 1993. Little has changed over thirty years.

In summary, the first years as a university professor are difficult for both men and women. That women's experiences might be compounded by gender issues was of particular concern to the two of us as we struggled to deepen our understanding of the culture in which we found ourselves. Our hope was that both we and other women could benefit from exploring the experiences of being new women faculty.

Methodology

This was a phenomenological study that used a narrative inquiry design. We agreed with Knowles and Cole (1991) that understanding the role of prior experiences and life histories in the socialization and acculturation process is important to full understanding of the experience of being a new professor.

This study involved in-depth interviews with eight female novice faculty members. Telling stories as a way of encouraging reflection was encouraged (Seidman, 1991). These women ranged in age from late twenties to late forties. They taught in two small universities where they worked in the departments of education, physical education and psychology. Participants were selected by convenience sampling, although we did not necessarily know the women who volunteered. At the time of data collection, participants had from one to four years of experience. We included ourselves as participants, and so we became members of the researched, as well as the researchers.

There were several limitations in this study. First there was the homogeneity of the participants, with no visible minorities represented. Secondly, only three disciplines were represented; these were ones where typically there may be more women than in other departments. The physical education department actually housed one more woman than men; however, in the other departments women were underrepresented. The experiences of the women being interviewed may have been coloured by these factors. We began with a pilot study where we both were involved in the interview and data interpretation. From the pilot study we clarified our approach to the unstructured interview and developed an understanding of collaboratively working together as researchers.

Participants were first asked to reflect on their recent experiences as new professors and then to explore the context of their lives as *female* scholars throughout their school lives. We did not ask participants specifically about the effect of gender on being a new professor. When stories included gendered aspects without our asking for them, we categorized these women as being "gender conscious."

Audiotapes of the interviews were made and later transcribed. Data analysis consisted of coding and categorizing as described in Bogdan and Biklen (1992), Strauss and Corbin (1990) and Kirby and McKenna (1989). We both made an initial analysis of the data independently and then met to share our interpretations and come to shared meaning. This shared interpretation was given to participants for further negotiation of meaning and to insure reciprocity (Hunt, 1992). Each participant was assigned a pseudonym.

Results

Several common themes were woven throughout the narratives of the participants. Each woman had a unique story to tell; however, we heard so many similar stories that the following portrait may seem unidimensional.

Common Background

The women were the first child, only child or first daughter in their families. Education was valued at home during elementary and secondary schooling. Eve's family moved their residence while she was in high school so that she could go to the "right" academic school. Vera was exempt from household chores; Susan's family admired those who had chosen academia as a career; Abby was expected to get through school even if it meant she had to work harder than others to do it. Even the families that did not actively encourage scholarship supported it: Nola's "chauvinistic" father demanded A's from his eldest daughter even though she was not allowed to go beyond high school, Rianne's family supported her academic leanings even though her family thought she must be "queer" to be so interested in books.

Self-doubt

Each of the women talked about self-doubt at some point in her academic career. Rianne and Vera had the least problem with this aspect. Rianne had always excelled at school. However, she was troubled with perfectionism; during her elementary and high school days she became physically ill before a test for fear of not being perfect. Vera had never thought of herself as an exceptional student but she also never questioned her ability to do well if she worked hard enough; it was not until she found herself in a faculty of education teaching older and more experienced people that she began to feel the imposter syndrome. The rest of the participants talked a lot about self-doubt. In the university they were taught by professors (usually male) whom they held in great awe. Perfectionism and feeling like an impostor were common experiences.

Relationships

Personal relationships: Although personal relationships were central to everyone, they never seemed to take priority over career. Half of the women were married or remarried, but had solidified their relationships only after they knew that their careers would not be threatened by their husbands' needs. Four of the women had undergone difficult marriage breakups en route to securing university positions. Three remain single, and one is involved in a long term lesbian relationship. Only Rianne ending her first year as a new professor claimed, not only to want, but to be able to have it all: she juggles a marriage with two young children and a new career.

Professional relationships: As graduate students - Relationships developed within academia were of primary importance for some of the participants in easing the passage through graduate school. Nola, Carol, Vera and Eve all experienced a colleague-like relationship with a professor (either male or female). It was this relationship that facilitated the confidence to continue on in school. Nola's female advisor's support allowed her to leave an abusive marriage and continue in school as an adult undergraduate. Carol was able to pursue a research topic that was of interest to her and her female advisor, but which was discounted or ridiculed by the rest of her graduate department. Eve was rescued from a unsuitable graduate experience by a male mentor who believed in her. Vera's smooth sailing could, in part, be attributed to the same male mentor. Rianne and Susan both came to the academic community with definite interests and both discovered professors who had similar interests leading to collegial relationships.

Abby and Mae did not find mentor-like relationships within the university community. However, both had returned to school after other careers and were perhaps self-directed enough to function without a mentor. Perhaps age was a factor here; however, Nola, Susan and Rianne all were older too.

Professional relationships: As professors - With one exception, every woman in this study talked about an initial sense of isolation in academia. Abby, situated in a basement office, commented that she could die in the basement and no one would know for a week. Although this was a strong statement, it vividly described the sense of isolation experienced. Eventually, this sense of isolation was mediated by a sense of community. Each woman developed a network where she could share concerns and research interests - a buffer against the world. Two women had to leave their first jobs in order to find this community. Others found it within the first university where they began their careers. Rianne did not experience the sense of isolation as she was immediately supported by the women at her university who had created a formal collaborative research network.

Perceptions of gender as an influence

As students: With the exceptions of Vera and Rianne, each woman entered graduate school with serious doubts about her ability. Yet, all had been good students who knew that with hard work they could do well. Events that undermined their self-confidence seemed to have had gender as their centre. In graduate school, being discounted by male professors was a common refrain. Nola commented that her fellow male students "were being groomed for the job," while she was "waved off". Being encouraged to go into "female fields" in spite of aptitude in math and science was not unusual. Eve was told in high school that "girls weren't supposed to be good at math." Mae's intelligence was discounted as she grew up because she came from a low socio-economic background as well as being female.

As teachers: None of the women in this study perceived that gender made a difference in their interactions as a professor with students. Those who were new to teaching did express initial concern. Nola wondered if perhaps she had been too informal and should have established a wider gulf between herself and students. Carol felt challenged by her students in ways suggesting gender bias, but now she is starting a new job and is not expecting gender to make a difference. Vera began her career questioning why female students seemed to give her a harder run than male students. But after a short time none of these participants believed that gender was still a factor. For Susan, Abby, Rianne and Mae teaching was a strong point; they all came to this profession with a background in teaching which may have affected their confidence.

As faculty: Two of the participants did not perceive gender as a central focus. For the others, gender had been an issue from the beginning of their careers. For example, there were some expectations from Eve's faculty for her to be involved in the women's centre activities which she found offensive. Nola believed that she could not write about gender issues and still be given the credit she needed for tenure. Carol and Mae stated that chauvinism was rampant in the first institution where they were hired. For others, the gender link was not that clear. Only when the data were examined closely did gender stand out as an issue that had been brushed off by the participants. One woman had been continually discounted by her chair until she gathered the courage to tell him she wasn't stupid and to stop treating her as if she was. Another had been betrayed by her male mentor and eventually had to go the sexual harassment committee (curiously this was one of the participants who did not place much emphasis on gender).

Almost every woman acknowledged that being female had been influential in her hiring - "they needed to hire a woman so they hired me." For some of the participants, gender had become a focus for academic pursuits. Carol, Susan and Nola are teaching women's issue courses. Mae and Abby have become deeply involved in women's issues. Feminist theory has played an important role in almost all these women's thinking, researching and teaching. We were surprised at how many of our participants had embraced a feminist perspective, since we had rarely heard women professors discussing these issues through an explicitly feminist lens.

"Becoming who you are"

The stories of these women are stories of grit and determination as each one found her own path. The self-doubt that had been described in such detail was also coupled with a high degree of drive and perseverance. Self-direction propelled each woman to push through her self-doubt. Her perfectionism began to work to her advantage and it seemed to become the intrinsic motivation to accomplish the things she had previously questioned whether she could do. Along the way she lost the awe for the male professor. In Nola's words, "He's not the genius I thought." Each woman discovered her own power and self-confidence.

In many ways it seemed as if the participants eventually discovered who they really were. Eve moved from wearing "power suits" in order to make the "correct impression" to wearing unique clothes that expressed her personality. Susan, Mae, Abby, Carol and Nola found that they were able to explore their true interests weaving together teaching and researching. Susan, Rianne and Mae all spoke with a sense of mission; each one believed that she was making a difference. This difference was in affecting teaching practices of educators in "the real world."

Discussion

Difficulties establishing an identity, coping with isolation, finding peer support and dealing with the pressures of tenure were very much a part of all our stories. These experiences seem to mark the territory of the new professor (Boice, 1991; Whitt, 1991). Yet, being a woman can compound the difficulties; women and minority groups are less likely to be productive new scholars in their first years, resulting in less likelihood of gaining tenure (Boice, 1992). Brookfield (1992) claims that the impostor syndrome is a universal experience; however, women often cast themselves in the impostor role for a lifetime (Bell, 1990). In this study, the women not only experienced the impostor syndrome but in many cases described this perception being reinforced by the undermining of males.

Yet, given all the very real problems inherent in being a new woman professor, the participants in this study all seemed to believe at a very deep level that they would persevere and be successful. What were the factors that contributed to this optimistic attitude? The following three major categories emerged:

Grit and Determination

A sense of purpose permeated these women's stories that counteracted the negatives. In the final analysis, the women in this study were survivors - they moved beyond the difficulties of being both a novice and a woman in academia. Their success may be accounted for by the fact that those currently entering the profession are a highly purposeful and motivated group who have survived a very competitive job market and are less likely than earlier generations to casually drift into academia (Finklestein & LaCelle-Peterson, 1992). These women knew what they wanted to do, and were determined to do it regardless of the obstacles.

Although the participants did fall neatly into the categories described in the literature, there were some critical differences. In 1987 it was far more likely for a male academic to be married than a female (Simeone, 1987). Yet none of the women in our study let marriage or significant outside relationships interfere with career paths. In fact, several left a significant relationship shortly before or after reentry into academic life. This speaks to the unwillingness of these women to fall into socialized roles, or the "marriage plot" (Heilbrun, 1988).

Much of the success of these women could be attributed to inner strengths that they brought with them to the professoriate. As each one gained confidence, she found it easier to express her authentic self. These women turned initial "weakness" into strength. Self-doubt was banished by self-direction; isolation was counteracted by the nurturing of relationships within the community; gender issues shifted from being a personal concern to an important focus for both teaching and research.

Gender consciousness

Only two women were not acutely aware of gender issues; that is, they did not refer to gender as a part of their experience during the unstructured interviews. This is in accord with Caplan (1993) who reports that some woman academics say they do not experience gender bias. Yet everyone in this study exemplified some typical gendered behavior. For example, everyone but Rianne attributed success to working hard and luck, in contrast to the male tendency to attribute success to ability (Richmond-Abbott, 1992). Rianne, on the other hand, was well aware of the influence of gender on the balancing of home and career priorities. It does seems possible, then, that not connecting gender issues to one's personal situation was really a lack of awareness.

Six women were acutely aware of gender issues in academia. Did it make a difference? The research, for example, claims that students perceive women professors differently than male professors and have more difficulty accepting authority and power from their female professors (Briskin, 1990). Yet, the "gender conscious" women in this study did not think, for the most part, that this was true in their personal context. Was this false consciousness (Gramsci, 1971)? A survival mechanism? Denial? Or reality? The most hopeful interpretation is to trust each woman's personal perception. In any case, this view facilitated each woman feeling positive about her teaching. Perhaps gender consciousness allowed them to transcend negative stereotypes.

Collegiality

Relationships in academia played a key role. As graduate students, a colleague-like relationship with a professor has been shown to increase the chances of a woman having a relatively smooth passage through graduate school (Dagg & Thompson, 1988). This was certainly true for most of the women in our study. Yet, not everyone was blessed with such a relationship. Mae and Abby survived graduate school with a personal mission driving them through the obstacles rather than having a mentor.

In many ways our participants were similar to the pretenure professors interviewed in a longitudinal study from 1986 to 1990 by Olsen and Sorcinelli (1992). They found that, over time, successful professors spent less time on teaching preparation and more on researching and were doing well in both areas. However, while intrinsic rewards remained strong, work satisfaction decreased. The primary reason for this was that collegiality was never experienced on campus; there was little support from senior faculty and there was increased pressure for tenure.

When the women in this study became professors they sought out collegial relationships. In many cases this meant relationships with women like themselves. In two universities, this collegiality was an informal network. At our university, however, we have initiated and established a formal research centre. Establishing a research centre is a strategy recommended to help increase junior faculty scholarship (Jarvis, 1992); however, it also has the added bonus of creating collegial networks.

The Next Steps

Possible qualitative differences in the male and female experience as a novice professor have not been addressed in this study. We are currently extending our study to novice male professors to explore this question. As well, the women in this study may have been anomalies given the small sample, and the departments and universities they found themselves in. Duplication of this study in other higher education settings would lead to deeper understanding of the experience of being a new woman professor.

It is also important to understand how we can create a university culture that addresses the difficulties of being a new and/or woman professor. The Brock Faculty of Education Centre on Collaborative Research may provide a model for such an undertaking. We are all women (although not intentionally so; until now, only women expressed interest in joining us) who are a collegial network of twelve core members who research and dialogue together. The idea for this centre was generated at the grass roots. Most of us were new professors seeking tenure and we represented all but five women in the education faculty. We approached the Dean with requests for space and support.

Today we begin our third year as a formal group and have an office and several small research grants to support our work. There is monthly meeting with a rotating chair. Ongoing collaborative research projects among members and with outside partners are the threads that weave us together. At first, our university colleagues considered us to be only a support group; yet, it has become clear that we are primarily researchers who are strengthened by a supportive network. Indeed, some of us have experienced very difficult personal situations and the women in the Centre have offered tremendous support during these times. On the other hand, we are catalysts for each other to engage in research, present papers and publish. There is definitely a perception of strength in numbers and we feel empowered in our own culture; thus, the climate is experienced as warm and inviting rather than cold and chilly.

Whether collegiality needs to be in a "female only" context is a moot point. Our group has often discussed how important it has been that, thus far, the group evolved as women only. Through our explorations, our gender consciousness has been raised and this has helped us to begin to transcend negative effects of gender (see Drake, Elliott & Castle, 1993).

The value of both gender consciousness and a collegial network for all professors is not debatable. Awareness of the problems associated with gender should make the transition for women easier as this facilitates the depersonalizing of negative situations (Caplan, 1993). Gender consciousness among men should decrease unconscious acts that discount women. Collegial relationships that are heightened with gender consciousness will go a long way in nurturing all novice faculty to reach their fullest potential.

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By Cherie De Jong, Margaret Hartman & Janet Fisher-Hoult

Mentoring New Faculty

Retaining new faculty is a critical concern at many institutions of higher learning. A university mentoring program that addressed this problem has produced positive results.

AT CALIFORNIA STATE University, Los Angeles, the impetus for the mentoring program stemmed originally from a concern about replacement of retiring faculty. Demographic study of the existing faculty indicated that 40 % (approximately 275 individuals) of the tenured faculty would be expected to retire before the year 2000. Three related factors made this fact of particular concern: (1) the national statistics on age demographics of tenured faculty and the statistics on the number of people in the pipeline to receive doctorates meant that we would be competing with most of the other campuses in the United States for a decreasing number of aspiring faculty members; (2) our recruitment success under the present, less competitive conditions was only 65%; and (3) for every four faculty members that we recruited, we had one faculty member in early or mid career resigning to take a job elsewhere. This paper reports on one of the programs established to address the retention issue, the faculty mentoring program.

In order to determine the causes of faculty dissatisfaction with the University, exit interviews were conducted with those faculty whom we would have wanted to keep. These faculty gave the following reasons for seeking a job elsewhere: the high cost of living in the Los Angeles area; a dislike of the urban environment for themselves and/or their children; the offer of an administrative position; too heavy a teaching load; a lack of research support; and a feeling of isolation. The last three areas were ones which could be addressed and by doing so, the retention of faculty could be improved.

In order to initially decrease the workload and provide time for research activities for new faculty members, schools and departments were advised to consider providing some release time during the first or first two quarters, assign the faculty member duplicate sections, and to avoid committee overload.

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To address the issue of feelings of isolation, several approaches were initiated. New faculty orientation was strengthened to include more personal interactions among new faculty members. Deans were asked to meet with each new faculty member once each quarter, and the Provost began to host a social event for new faculty. It was also determined to begin a mentoring program. Boice's (1990) study, which examined the process and efficacy of a university mentoring program, found evidence that a systematic program strongly supported new faculty. Mentored faculty reported fewer feelings of social isolation and stress, more intellectual stimulation, and higher teaching ratings.

The literature on mentoring programs focusing on new teachers in K through 12 schools was numerous; however, literature regarding mentoring at the university level contained far fewer published accounts. In designing a university mentoring program, elements and considerations from both levels were examined and utilized.

Components of Effective Mentoring

In developing a mentoring program, the first step is to establish the purpose and goals of the program to meet the needs of the particular institution involved. These goals should then be owned and understood by the total institutional community. These goals may then serve as a framework for all subsequent mentor support activities. They will guide the administration, the development, implementation and evaluation of the program (Enz, 1990). The purpose and goals of mentoring have been generally identified by some researchers (Gehrke, 1988; Little, 1990; Reiman, 1991; Zey, 1984) as to retain and induct new teachers, to reward and revitalize experienced teachers, and to increase professional efficacy. After the purpose and goals have been agreed upon, the needs and concerns of new teachers should be considered the foundation for all support efforts (Enz, 1990).

Mentoring in education is a complex process that includes the developmental issues and needs of beginning teachers and their mentors, the current teaching skills of the mentees, the helping skills of the mentors, as well as factors in the educational institution (Head, Reiman, Thies-Sprinthall, 1992). Based on the needs of beginning teachers for whom no assistance was provided (Veenman, 1984) and on settings where beginners were given help (Odell, 1986), Thies-Sprinthall (1990) categorized seven areas of need:

1) Help in developing competence without it being a "screening process,"
2) Skilled mentors who are on site and skilled as peer coaches,
3) Time to work with their mentor and develop their skills,
4) Opportunities to talk with other beginners in an evaluation free setting,
5) Orientation to the institution,

6) Realistic teaching assignments especially regarding the number and type of classes, and
7) Understanding the context in which they will teach (i.e., values of the institution, work with at-risk students, with minority students, etc.)

These professional needs may be compounded by life changes for the mentee such as, in some cases, making the transition from being a student to a professional educator, as well as moving to a new community, and all that entails. Novices must deal with issues regarding the development of their personal and professional identities in a new context which will affect their personal and career development (Erickson, 1963) Kram, 1983).

With these needs in mind, it is critical to the mentoring process that mentors be chosen who will be able to address the needs of their mentees. In Boice's (1990) analysis of mentor/mentees pairings, both traditional and non-traditional, i.e. same vs. different genders, departments, ethnicity, and junior and senior faculty, he found no pattern of differences between types of pairs. This conclusion was also drawn by an empirical study by Alleman et al. (1984); success in mentoring depends on what mentors do rather than who they are. Mentors must be individuals who are able to provide the relevant information in forms that are comprehensible, and to empathize and provide emotional support (Head, et. al., 1992). The mentor needs to be an accepting individual who has the listening skills and the ability to communicate genuine feelings of acceptance. They must further be able to invest the time necessary. This requires a capacity of the mentor to handle a large number of tasks and responsibilities without becoming overwhelmed (Reiman & Edelfelt, 1990) The large amount of time is necessary not only to not only provide information and coaching, but to develop a real relationship so that the mentee can receive encouragement and feel the safety to express concerns and to try out new ideas and skills without fear of repercussions (Gold, 1992; Kay, 1990). Reiman (1988) adds to these characteristics necessary in good mentors the importance of being able to assist in the mentees in reflecting on the issues they face. This process is a way for both mentors and mentees to be "inquiring professionals" (Howey, 1988).

Reiman and Edelfelt (1990) add another role that the mentor must be able to fill, that of "anthropologist" where the mentor helps the mentee understand the complex culture of the educational institution environment. They also emphasize the impact that the environment has on the success of mentoring. For example, the mentor must be able to speak on the mentee's behalf and seek to affect changes when institutional demands on the new teacher are inappropriate.

An alliance must be formed between interrelated levels of the educational institution to provide support for the mentees, the mentors, and for the mentoring program in general if the goals of the mentoring program are to be met (Greathouse, Johnston, Enz, Anderson & Noggle, 1990).

A training program for individuals participating in the mentor/mentee relationship is an important feature of mentoring programs. Participants should be made aware of findings that successful mentoring must include regular meetings and on-going, active participation by both members of the pair (Boice, 1990; Menges, 1986). Training should also include a description of the responsibilities of mentors and mentees mentioned previously, and mentors and mentees may be provided with models of mentoring such as that developed by Kay (1990) which emphasizes that both the mentor and the mentee should take responsibility for developing a clear understanding of what needs to be done, on how to recognize when it is done correctly, and to feel good about it. Kay (1990) also emphasizes that the goal of the mentoring program is for the mentee to become self-reliant as competencies and understandings are developed. Covington & Beery (1976) have pointed out that competence develops as one comes to depend on one's own powers and abilities; that doing something for someone instead of their doing it on their own slows the development of competence and undermines confidence. Mentors should separate their need to help from the learners need for help (Covington & Feldman, 1974). Related to this concept is the importance of mentors not to expect mentees to do things exactly as the mentor does. New teachers need information, coaching, feedback and emotional support from the mentor, but they also need the freedom to develop their own set of values, standards and skills (Kay, 1990).

This understanding is important since at a certain point the mentee will no longer rely on the mentor. To this end, various researchers have noted that mentoring typically consists of a progression through stages. Healthy mentoring initially involves relative dependence on the mentor to self-reliance and autonomy as the mentee becomes a peer. Kram (1983) for instance, divide the mentoring relationship into the phases of initiation, cultivation, separation, and redefinition. Hunt & Michael's (1983) stages include initiation, protege, break up, and lasting friendship. Providing mentoring participants with this information may help them avoid what has been identified as a major pitfall in mentoring, over-reliance on the mentor and failure to allow the relationship to grow and change (Busch, 1985; Kay, 1990; Odell, 1990).

Another important element of mentoring programs is providing incentives for mentors to participate in this time consuming and professionally and emotionally demanding process. (Wolfe, 1990). Whaley and Wolfe (1984) recommend offering a wide variety of both tangible and intangible rewards to aid in the recruitment of qualified mentors. Whaley and Wolfe (1984) suggest such as things as:

- ***Release time***— discretionary

time during official working hours in order to observe and meet with mentees;

- ***Financial compensation***—either through a stipend, credit toward status on a career ladder, or funds for professional activities;
- ***Professional development opportunities***—these might include such benefits as funding for travel or conference registration fees;
- ***Public recognition***—meaningful recognition through titles, and opportunities to participate in teacher education in their roles as mentors.

Mentoring programs must also be evaluated to examine their effectiveness. One purpose cited by Odell (1990) is that of accountability which allows for external examination of the program in order to determine the worth of the mentoring program. Odell (1990) further points out the value of evaluation in order to improve the mentoring process; to find the strengths and weakness so that informed decisions can be made in terms of what is working and what needs to be changed. The evaluation could look into such areas as the relevance of the training of the mentors, the adequacy of support for new teachers and the level of communication between members of the educational community involved in the process. The evaluation process needs to be more than a one-time look at the program, but rather an on-going examination over time (Galluzzo & Craig, 1990).

Odell (1990) suggests that multiple sources of information over many settings with a variety of procedures in assessing specific mentoring program goals will provide the best information to further improve the mentoring process.

The Mentoring Program

There were several components in developing the mentoring program. First, Deans were given guidelines regarding responsibilities to new faculty, as well as guidelines for choosing mentors. Responsibilities included: 1) to give both formal and informal insight into the Retention/Tenure/Promotion process, 2) to give honest assessments of strengths and weaknesses of the mentees' professional profile, providing, whenever possible, 3) to give a personal, open assessment based on experience of how things "really work" in the department and/or school, 4) to pass on any perspectives of other faculty members' about the mentee to the mentee in a constructive manner, without mentioning any names, 5) to provide referral service if the mentors don't know an answer themselves, and 6) to involve the mentee in a social setting whenever possible so the mentee can meet as many people as possible. The criteria for choosing mentors for the mentees included: 1) Associate or Full Professors who have up-to-date knowledge of the RTP process, 2) someone interested in serving and willing to make the necessary time commitment, including attendance at a Mentor/Mentee Workshop, 3) someone located within the school, but not necessarily within the department, 4) someone who is supportive and relates well to people, 5) someone with a balanced approach to university life, and 6) someone who will be a good role model. The Provost was also given information regarding the Deans' responsibilities and asked to insure that the Deans follow through, and also to insure that new faculty receive orientation, that both mentors and mentees receive training, and, also, to insure that new faculty have the opportunity to interact socially.

The Mentor/Mentee Workshop itself was of critical importance. In a whole group meeting, participants were given an overview of the Mentor program. In two smaller groups, one of mentors and one of mentees, the participants were given further information (for mentees e.g., "Questions to Ask Your Department Chair). They were given questionnaires to help them assess various skills important to the process (e.g., Conferencing Skills Inventory). They also participated in discussions of Case Studies of problems that can arise in the mentoring process, and further encouraged to discuss among themselves potential difficulties or any aspect of the program and process. Mentors and mentees again met in a large group for general discussion, after which each mentor/mentee pair engaged in a planning session. New faculty mentees were invited to a series of events during their first quarter which would provide opportunities to talk with and get to know other new faculty members in an evaluation free setting.

Feedback

These events also provided opportunities for mentor program coordinators to get informal feedback from the mentees about the program. From this feedback, if a mentee had any concerns or needs, they could be addressed early in the process.

After the first quarter, the new faculty mentees are asked to more formally evaluate their mentoring process. Last year there was a Brown Bag Luncheon in January where mentees were asked to discuss their experiences and to provide written feedback anonymously.

The mentees' comments indicated that they found the program to be very helpful, overall. Specific areas where mentors had been helpful included such aspects as course design, grant application, advisement, grading practices and the retention/tenure/promotion process.

In answer to the question, "What effect has mentoring had?" the responses were quite positive:

"The effect was significant in that it reassured me that I am on the right track."

"I got very positive feedback which was like breathing air to a new faculty member."

"Gives me the feeling of having a reliable and trustworthy source."

"He has helped build my self-confidence."

"It opened lines of communication."

"It alleviates some stress and helps me to feel less overwhelmed."

It appeared from the feedback that, as noted in the literature (Boice, 1990; Menges, 1986) the more time new faculty members were able to spend with their mentors, the more they felt they benefited from the program.

The parts of the program that were repeatedly mentioned as beneficial were the Orientation and the on-going group events, both for information provided and especially for the opportunities to get to know other new faculty members. Some of these comments were:

"I appreciate the valuable information provided during the orientation program. It was excellent in terms of creating a positive environment. The on-going meetings have been especially helpful."

"Initial faculty orientation was excellent because it helped us band as new faculty across disciplines."

"Orientation was extremely helpful and most importantly, a big comfort to meet and know others going through the same experience."

There was some feedback regarding a problem we had during the Mentor/Mentee Workshop. One of the mentors was adamantly opposed to attending and, although he did, he was clearly not happy to be there. After the workshop, however, his mentee reported that their relationship and the help provided be his mentor improved "100%."

In order to continue developing our mentoring program to better meet the needs of new faculty, we plan to expand our feedback evaluations with the next group to include asking mentors to record the questions that mentees ask, and, as Boice (1990) did in his study, to ask mentees to rank order their concerns.

Problems

There were several problems in implementing this program. One was the selection of mentors which was done by the Deans. Some mentors were matched on a traditional pairing format based on shared academic areas rather than on the personal characteristics and other criteria mentioned earlier. Another problem was the lack of rewards for mentors in our current budget situation. Attendance at the Mentor/Mentee Workshop, especially on the part of mentors, was a problem, as well as some complaints on the part of new faculty about pressure to participate in on-going activities while under of the burden of their new responsibilities. There were also some complaints about the social science orientation of the workshop. Finally, the lack of evaluation input from mentors about the program needs to be addressed.

Summary

The retention of faculty has improved significantly since the program was initiated. In each of the last two years, the number of faculty leaving the University has been two, a reduction from eight. Since the recruitment has also increased, we are now losing one faculty member to another University for every 15 that we hire.

In the opinion of the authors, mentoring was an important factor in the decrease in the resignations, but it cannot be considered the sole reason for the improvement. The present fiscal crisis in most state systems of higher education has probably had a dampening effect on faculty searching for new jobs and cannot be ignored. Additionally, the mentoring program was only one of several ways that the problem was attacked. However, based on the comments of the faculty who have been mentored, we feel comfortable in asserting that the mentoring program serves the purpose for which is was created.

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Pragmatic Presidents and Effective Chairs

The following book reviews involve titles of interest to professional development practitioners.

***The Pragmatic Presidency: Effective Leadership in the Two-Year College*, by Edwin E. Vineyard. Bolton, MA: Anker Publishing Company, Inc., 1993, xiv + 213 pp. $30.95.**

Pragmatic Presidents

Reviewed by Eleanor Fujita

The Pragmatic Presidency: Effective Leadership in the Two-Year College by Edwin E. Vineyard offers a comprehensive overview of the presidency and the functions of a higher education institution. The book consists of four sections. The first section, "The Presidency in Transition," considers the presidency; it includes chapters about the "nature" or what is termed the "aura" of the presidency, the career ladder to the presidency (the "proper background" for the position), presidential searches, and, finally, periods of transition when one president leaves and another assumes the office.

The second section titled, "Effective Presidential Leadership," concerns internal functions and relationships with which the president must be involved. The chapters discuss the various constituencies, institutional governance, and area administration, with whole chapters dedicated to personnel policies and practices and institutional research and planning. The third section, "The President's Service Environment," includes chapters concerning such diverse topics as outcome studies for accreditation review, the "non-urban junior college," the "perquisites" of the presidency, and presidential evaluation. The fourth and final section presents short vignettes of situations which a college president may face.

The strength of this book, and its weakness as well, lie in its comprehensiveness and its reliance on the experience of one president. Priest, in the foreword, hints at this, "...I don't agree with all of the conclusions reached by the author. In fact, his coverage is so all-inclusive that no one I've ever known would agree with all of the amazingly large number of topics on which judgments are made" (p. xii). Vineyard touches

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upon topics as exhaustive as the presidential search and selection and student retention studies, offering many helpful hints along the way. The comprehensiveness dictates that some topics receive more thorough attention than others. So, for example, the chapters on personnel practices and institutional research and planning are detailed and worthwhile reading, and most of the case studies reflect real situations administrators face each day. But observations such as those about administering student residence halls or presidents coming from the ranks of the faculty reflect either opinion or limited situations and will not resonate with all community college administrators.

Although a great deal has been written in recent decades about academic leadership (see, for example, Birnbaum, 1992; Bensimon, *et al.*, 1989; Chaffee and Tierney, 1988; Walker, 1979), the author relies on only a few authoritative sources: Fisher, Kauffman, and Vaughan. Therefore, as when the author relies heavily on Fisher's notion of the "mystique" of the presidency and the value of presidential distancing, acknowledgement is made of Vaughan's concern with this notion but little further attention is given to the many countering views as might be found in Kauffman (1989) or Enarson (1986).

Finally, the reader is struck by the fact that though the book is about "effective leadership in the two-year college," very little explicit reference is made to the community college and what may distinguish leadership in the sector. It is written from the perspective of an experienced community college president and therefore has real relevance to that sector of higher education institutions, but the responsibility for interpreting the relevance is placed upon the reader. The chapter on "The Non-Urban Junior College," is an exception in this regard in its description of the often overlooked problems facing the *rural* community college.

It has been said that "organizations can be analyzed at two distinct levels, substantive and symbolic" and "presidents can [and to be particularly successful, must] influence their institutions on both levels" (Birngaum, 1992, p. 152). Vineyard, true to the title of his book, gives the most space to an enumeration of the many functions, procedures, and practices involved in administering a college, and this is fortunate, since the strength of the book lies in these descriptions rather than in the interpretative or symbolic realm.

According to the author, the book was written for "practicing presidents, new presidents, and aspiring presidents ... trustees and all others who seek in a scholarly way to understand the nature of the presidency ... [and the case studies] should prove valuable learning and discussion exercises for graduate seminars and workshops, as well as for practitioners in the field" (p. xiii). It will be of interest, however, mainly to persons seeking an overview of the many functions involved in administering a small college.

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Effective Chairs

***Effective Communication for Academic Chairs*, edited by Mark Hickson III and Don W. Stacks. New York: State University of New York Press, 1992, 231 pp. $44.50.**

Reviewed by Val D. Miskin

This book includes 11 chapters and two appendices by 19 different authors addressing the critical nature of effective department communication. Each author is a nationally recognized scholar and nearly all are practicing or former administrators.

As the title suggests, the editors' intent is to stress effective communication as vital to department chair success. The preface (editors) and introduction (Christopher H. Spicer and Ann Q. Staton) combine to build a strong case for communication as "the most critical part" of department management. The stage is set well as they define the current dilemma, achievement expectations and leadership role of successful chairs. They advise that department success requires achievement in student recruitment, faculty recruitment, affirmative action, student learning, faculty motivation, budget management, and administration. They then propose the chairs' leadership role is to establish achievement parameters and "articulate to faculty" the need for flexibility and innovation within these parameters.

The general caution to avoid the "activity trap" precedes their final challenge. Primarily focusing on achievement areas without regard to effective communication can lead to productive, but isolated chair activity. Chairs are challenged, instead, to attend to the "art of creating shared understanding with others" and let department achievements become the by-products.

The Contribution

The preface and introduction document the proposition that "effective communication is the key" to all other chair responsibilities.

While the content of each chapter contributes to this intent, the sequence of chapters seems to confuse rather than elucidate. Chapters 1, 9 and 11 share the common elements of strategic department leadership. Chapters 2, 6, 7 and 10 detail the role of communication in faculty assessment, development, motivation and improved relationships. Chapters 3, 4, 5, 8 and appendices A and B focus more on the initiative and responsibility of the individual chair.

Stanley A. Deetz (Chapter 1) compares the industrial and collegial models of management and gives strong evidence supporting the value of strategic management. This chapter reminds us that in the collegial model, chairs lead only "by permission of their faculty." Patti Peete Gillespie, June Kable and Carla Bennett (Chapters 9 and 11) continue this discussion. They provide excellent examples of using information, feedback and communication to develop a coherent department image among its external and internal stakeholders.

With a direction for the future firmly in mind, Anita Taylor (Chapter 2) stresses the criticalness of developing collegial relationships with faculty and provides insight into the cultures and power structures that inhibit as well as facilitate effective communication. Michael Stano (Chapter 7) brings an excellent comparison of the appraisal process in business organizations but needs the focus of Robert M. Smith (Chapter 6) on faculty development to give it meaning in the academic institution. While more discussion and examples of outcome measurements in academic departments would be helpful, these two chapters strengthen the case of effective communication as the "key" to effective department management. James M. McCroskey and Virginia P. Richmond (Chapter 10) bring closure to the faculty development issues by revisiting the strategic management concepts. Their advice is to recruit achievers, articulate a clear direction and influence behavior toward department success.

Chapters 3, 4 and 5 (Robert L. Applbaum, Fred E. Jandt, John A. Kaufman and June Kable) provide detail, insight and example of individual chair initiative and responsibility. These chapters give specific focus to communicating effectively with other administrators, constructively managing grievances and articulating the budget process. Edward L. McGlone and Susan K. Kovar (Chapter 8) provide closure, as did Chapter 10, by highlighting the chairs' responsibility in clarifying department goals. The final charge to department chairs is to "develop trust relationships that initiate individual effort toward department goals."

Implications

Two substantive implications emerge from these contributions and a third seeks additional attention. First, managing academic departments requires a clarity and coherence of future department directions. For new and veteran chairs alike, the sections on chair initiative and strategic management are insightful and meaningful. These chapters and the two appendices provide clear concepts and relevant examples for both providing and gathering information. Determining what information is wanted or needed should be directly linked to the department, college and institutional goals and missions.

Second, is the implication that changing the focus from "managing department achievements" to "communicating more effectively" will create a shift in chair and faculty development efforts. This leads to the proposition that as chairs develop more effective communication skills, their faculty will become more active participants in department achievements.

The third implication, one that is implied but not directly addressed in this edition, is the need to develop outcome measures to articulate department goals and directions. Appendix A suggests faculty, students, scheduling, advising, budget, policies and facilities as areas to gain important department information. However, recognizing these data as vital to defining and evaluating department success is the critical issue to department chairs.

Conclusion

Effective Communication for Academic Chairs offers a new focus for department chair effectiveness. While it may not provide a full solution, it takes an excellent and important first step in suggesting this priority of **process** (communication) over **content** (achievement areas). Hickson and Stacks have succeeded in emphasizing communication skills development and challenging chairs to become more actively involved in the leadership process.

Val D. Miskin is Director of Graduate Programs in Business at Washington State University, Pullman, Washington.

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ON TEACHING

Acquiring Expertise in Specific Content Areas: Implications for Teaching Novices

Instruction that builds from simple to complex knowledge coupled with processing skills can have a tremendous impact on moving students along the novice to expert continuum—they may not all become experts, but we can certainly have an impact on their level of expertise.

**By Claire E. Weinstein
& Douglas Hamman**

For years many models of college teaching, training, and adult education settings were predicted on the assumption that if we only understood expert performance we could teach students who are novices to act and think like experts. We now know the differences between experts and novices in many domains, but this knowledge has also taught us that there is more to helping novices develop a given level of expertise than simply teaching them to mimic expert thoughts and behaviors. Novices can evolve into experts. Throughout this transition they acquire knowledge in a specific domain; develop organized knowledge bases; learn and organize strategies for acquiring, thinking about, and using their knowledge; and, develop a mastery orientation toward the domain.

The first section of this abstract will highlight the differences between experts and novices. The second will focus on strategies that teachers can use to facilitate students' transition from being novices to acquiring varying levels of expertise in specific content areas.

What Is an Expert?

There are many characteristics of expertise. Among the most salient for our purposes are:

1. ***An expert possess a great amount of knowledge in his or her domain of expertise.*** In many ways, this characteristic is simply a restatement of the common-sense notion that an expert is someone who knows more about something. It is true that an expert has a great deal of knowledge about a particular subject, but this is not enough for effective and efficient performance. For example, suppose two instructors both teach at the same college. Both of them are wonderful—they place all of the announcements and information sent their way in a manila

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folder, label it, and put it into a filing cabinet in their offices. However, one instructor is more organized than the other, and she files her folders in a logical order. She places admissions information in the admissions section, curriculum information in the curriculum section, and so on. The second instructor, on the other hand, simply places each new folder behind the last one she put in. If a problem arises and they both need to get a set of folders on the curriculum changes in their area over the past year, who would be more efficient and effective at retrieving this material? The first instructor, of course, because of the organization she imposed on the information she received.

2. ***An expert has a well-organized knowledge base.*** It is not enough to just hold onto a large amount of information; an expert must also organize that information in such a way that it is readily available for future processing or use. This method of organization also facilitates acquiring new knowledge since it is easier to relate new information to an existing knowledge base. This is why students often find they have an easier time understanding the material when they get more advanced courses. In the introductory courses they had little organized knowledge that they could use to make sense of the new material, but in advanced courses they have an organized knowledge base from which to draw. Part of creating and using this organized knowledge base relates to students' development of effective and efficient strategies for acquiring new knowledge, organizing it, and recalling it for further reflection or application.
3. ***Experts have a well-developed repertoire of strategies for acquiring new knowledge, integrating and organizing their knowledge base, and applying their knowledge and skills in a variety of contexts,*** ranging from simple recall to complex problem solving and decision making. It is the domain specificity of these strategies that often is the hallmark of the expert. Most of us can learn more generic strategies, such as how to understand and remember information from textbooks. We can even adapt these strategies to more specific tasks, such as reading a history textbook. But this is not the same as reading the book and generating meaning from it in the same way this would be done by an historian. Historians have a unique way of thinking about history. Physicists use very strategic approaches for defining and then solving physics problems. Part of the reason for these differences and why experts even bother to develop these strategies relates to their motivational orientation to their area of expertise, the fourth major characteristic of expertise.

61

4. ***Experts have a mastery orientation to their domain of expertise.*** Experts are not only interested in gaining a reward or in reaching some external performance goal; they also want to truly master the material and use their high level of understanding to press further in developing knowledge in the field and its applications. Most students have varying levels of both performance and mastery goals in specific subject areas. For example, the student who loves psychology and is taking a self-paced modularized course may want an "A" in the course (a performance goal) but may also want to understand the material as much as possible (a mastery goal). This individual is likely to complete enough modules to earn an "A" but is also likely to keep going and complete as many extra modules as he or she can until the end of the semester. Another student who is not particularly interested in psychology may be just as motivated to get an "A" in the course but stops after completing the required number of modules. This student's motivational orientation is more performance-oriented than it is mastery-oriented. Experts may have varying levels of performance goals in particular contexts, but they usually have mastery goals when it comes to their area of expertise. Areas of expertise are usually narrowly defined.

5. ***Expertise is usually developed in a narrowly defined domain.*** Experts may have a good knowledge base in a broad area, but their true expertise will be in a more narrowly defined domain. For example, an expert airplane mechanic knows about mechanics in general. This expertise may or may not enable her to fix something in the family car, but it would be a tremendous help for fixing the particular jets she has worked on for the Air Force for 20 years.

Implications for Instruction

What are the implications for helping students make the transition from novice to expert? The first implication is that few students really want to make the transition from novice to expert in any given domain. Particularly for those of us who teach introductory courses, few of our students may really want to become masters of the material. Instead, the goals they have for our course are more performance-oriented. One of the ways we can help students increase the level of their motivation in a course is to help them identify what Gretchen Stone calls the *utility value* of the course. Helping students see how the material in our course can be of use to them now or in the future in meeting their personal, social, academic, or occupational goals can help them be more interested in the material and more willing to understand it (even if not to the level of a student who is truly mastery-oriented). There are several ways to do this, but one of the easiest is to have a class discussion after the course overview. Do not tell the students why they should value the material; have them generate the reasons. It is much more powerful and persuasive. This method can also be used whenever major topics in a course are introduced.

Another implication of this work is that we need to help students establish an adequate knowledge base before we can expect them to develop sophisticated strategies for using their knowledge in complex tasks such as problem solving. However, it is also important to teach students the strategies they need to expand their knowledge base, to organize and integrate its contents, and to access it. It is not uncommon to find instructional materials that present a great deal of information but then students are tested with application and analysis or synthesis questions. The assumption is these materials (or in our classroom presentations) is that is the students know the information, they will also know how to use it.

If we want students to use higher-order processing strategies, then we must explicitly teach them how to use these strategies. Modeling and guided practice with feedback, with materials gradually ranging from simple to more complex, are both very effective methods for doing this. For example, when helping students learn to identify main ideas in literature, you would not start with James Joyce! Using short stories with themes that are relatively easy for your students to relate to would be a far better choice.

Instruction that builds from simple to complex knowledge coupled with processing skills can have a tremendous impact on moving students along the novice to expert continuum—they may not all become experts, but we can certainly have an impact on their level of expertise.

Claire E. Weinstein is a Professor of Educational Psychology and **Douglas Hamman** is a Graduate Student of Educational Psychology at The University of Texas at Austin, EDB 352, Austin, TX 78712.

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By Linc. Fisch

Chalk Dust

Students on the Line

Grading would be a lot less difficult if it were only a matter of numbers.

Professor Harry Aguilar sat at his desk, entering the last of the exam scores into the computer. The glow of the screen and the circle of light from the desk lamp were all that brightened his study at this late hour. "Classics 'til Dawn" had just begun on WUFM—Tchaikovsky's *Sixth Symphony* softly accompanied his end-of-term ritual: processing final grades.

Stevens, the computer prompted. Harry entered *83*. *Stevens 411 total*, the computer responded.

Hey, she's really improved, Harry thought.

Stottlemeyer … 69 … 375 total.

Aaughh—Bill fell down on the final.

Trammell … 78 … 363 total.

Not bad. He may get his C yet.

Turpin … 76 … 420 total.

OK. But I expected a little better from him.

Walker … 62 … 395 total.

Oh-oh. Not so good …

Winston … 92 … 478 total.

Yeah! 'Way to go! She's still at the top of the heap.

That's it, Harry said to himself. Let's look at the statistics.

He entered a command and the screen filled with figures.

Harry studied them. *Range 283-478.* Not bad for a maximum 500 total. *Median 385. Mean 383. Standard deviation 52.* Good; most of the total scores are within two standard deviations of the mean. Let's get a distribution and see where the breaks are.

He entered a command and the computer printed out a distribution of the totals, ordered from high to low.

Yep, Winston's a clear A—and three others are not far behind her, Harry observed. Nice gap between 460 and 439. Clear distinction there. That's where the A/B line will be. It's good to have clean breaks between categories—no arguments that way.

He drew a line below 460.

Let's see what's happening at the bottom of the distribution. Loman 283 and Bivins 285—those are clear failures. And Jenkins 290, too. Poor guy; he just never had a chance. He was in 'way over his head. Looks like Williams 308 will be the lowest D.

He drew a line below 308.

And there's another break above 342—that'll probably be the C/D separation. Not too many Ds this time; good. Whew … you made your

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C, Trammell, but not with much room to spare.

He drew another line between 361 and 342.

Let's go back to the Bs. The top one's 439 ... then 434 and 433 ... a couple of 428s ... 420 ... 414 ... 411 ... 407 ... 401 ... 396 ... 395 ... 392 ... hmm, the biggest gap's been only eight points, too tight for a cut ... 385 ... 380 ... 375 ... Oh-oh. Should be a break in there somewhere. It's a long reach from 439 down to 361. Gotta be a B/C line somewhere ... where is it? Hmm ... should be at about 400 or 410. That would be about 80%.

Harry stared at the screen.

But the points really don't tell it all, he thought.

There's Walker at 395. Jeannie's grades were really up there early in the term, but she tumbled badly. Missed quite a few classes lately. I wonder why. She might not make the cut.

Mike Miller 414. Good ol' Mr. Nice Guy. Pretty good fullback, too. Easy going. Always goofin' around, but never any trouble. I wish I could motivate him to be more serious and get down to work. His academic performance doesn't deserve a lot of consideration. But he managed to hit the final pretty well, just like last term.

There's Ed Jackson 407. He's back after being out for several years. Doesn't speak up much, but when he does it's really solid. Comes to all the help sessions. Steady Eddie.

And Ken Greenburg 380. This is a tough course for non-majors. Ken works like hell and he contributes a lot in class. Deserves a break more on effort than anyone else. But just can't seem to hit the tests. He's so worried he called twice today to see if I had finished grading.

Right in the middle there is Kate Saunders 401. She did a great job in the lead in Players' production this term. I think she's got a lot of potential. But she's the quietest one in the class. Still water runs deep?

Josie Muñiz is down there in the 380s with Ken. On the basis of points alone, she's another good candidate for a C. But she's highly motivated, and I'm sure once she got going she'd excel. Makes good use of my conference hours. One of the most deserving of the bunch. She needs the grades to get into Ed School. The way she's dealt with her own disability would make her great in special education. Her parents will probably pull her out of college if she doesn't get into the Education program this year.

Harry scanned the scores again and breathed a deep sigh.

Where's the cutoff? Or should they all get Bs? Naw. Maybe all Cs? A C really isn't so bad; it's average. But I guess it makes a big difference to a student.

It's agonizing at end-of-term. Grading would be a lot less difficult if it were only a matter of numbers.

Sometimes I wish I didn't know anything about my students. But I do. They're all lives-in-progress. What I decide can really affect them. Maybe it shouldn't, but it does.

I know I can record any grade I want to, even arbitrarily; I really don't have to justify anything. But that's not the point. I just can't blow it off like that.

Harry rubbed his eyes, leaned back in his chair, and sighed again.

Whoever said teaching would be satisfying and rewarding *and fun* sure wasn't thinking about making out final grades …

Linc. Fisch lives in Lexington, Kentucky, and draws upon some 30 years' experience in higher education to design short films and videos to trigger discussion. The above sketch was adapted from a video in a new series on issues of ethics and values in college teaching. The series was produced by the University of Kentucky Office of Media Design and Production and supported in part by a grant from The Lilly Endowment, Inc.

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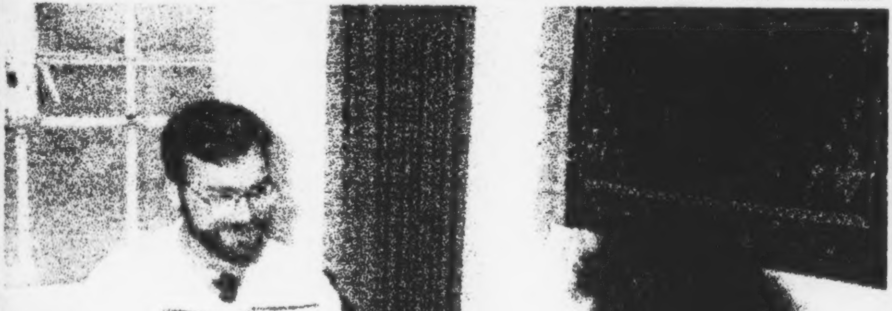

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CONTENTS

VOLUME 12, NUMBER 2—FALL 1994

Practical Guide To Developing And Implementing Cultural Awareness Training For Faculty And Staff Development 69

By Joanne L. Smikle

This article describes an interactive workshop for faculty/staff development in diversity and cultural awareness. The article illustrates the mechanics of introductory awareness training which focuses on identifying institutional barriers, communication across cultures and action planning for diversity. The article details a workshop which focuses on practical applications of the major theories and principles of diversity.

Perspectives On Scholarship In Education: Undergraduate And Graduate Students' Views On Faculty Scholarship 81

By Terry L. Wiedmer

Undergraduate and graduate education students were surveyed regarding their perceptions of the role expectations of faculty involved in teacher education. A questionnaire asked for background information and opinions regarding faculty work, pay, and role expectations. Respondents indicated that teaching was overwhelmingly the most important job of a college education professor.

Toward an Exemplary Teaching Videotape Library for Faculty Development 97

By Erin Porter, Debra K. Meyer & Anastasia S. Hagen

While the use of videotape in faculty development is certainly not a new idea, this library project for our Center evolved from the contemporary, specific needs on our campus. The tape library is a statement to our faculty that many personal styles are effective and that many teaching methods are possible and acceptable.

Beyond Isolationism: Faculty Orientation as a Long-Term Commitment 109

By Penelope Lisi, Dimitrios Pachis & Carol Williams

Traditional faculty orientation programs are brief events that rarely help build a sense of community. This article describes a successful program that connects new faculty to information, resources, and to each other. The program includes three components scheduled throughout the academic year: Two-day Seminar, New Faculty Mentoring Program, and Faculty Dialogues.

Book Reviews—Leadership Skills for Chairs, New Faculty in Liberal Arts Colleges 119
Chalk Dust—The Legacy of Gus Mueller 125

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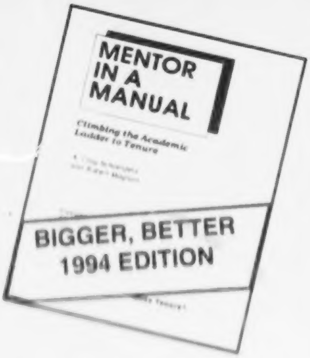
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By Joanne L. Smikle

Practical Guide To Developing And Implementing Cultural Awareness Training For Faculty And Staff Development

This article describes an interactive workshop for faculty/staff development in diversity and cultural awareness. The article illustrates the mechanics of introductory awareness training which focuses on identifying institutional barriers, communication across cultures and action planning for diversity. The article details a workshop which focuses on practical applications of the major theories and principles of diversity.

RECENT INTEREST in developing culturally sensitive curricula and materials requires that faculty and staff development professionals be well-versed in the theories, principles and practices of diversity and multiculturalism. Further, it is critical that professionals in every field have mechanisms and skills for creating and maintaining inclusive organizational and institutional environments. Hence, the need for diversity training appropriate for faculty and staff development.

Based on the pluralist approach to multiculturalism, this article offers a model for designing developmental training for cultural awareness and provides a method for comparing other similar types of training. Because of its highly interactive design, this workshop should be delivered to no more than twenty-five persons at a time.

The developmental activities outlined herein are based on the notion that participants must experience and explore cultural differences and similarities, not just study them. This workshop is intended as an introductory course which can be used as a foundation for more advanced learning. It can be structured

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as a two or three day training program.

Preliminary Considerations

Effectively addressing cultural awareness requires that the developer have a high level of self-awareness and sensitivity (Coleman,1990; Warren, 1994). Being well-equipped to design and deliver this type of training requires a thorough examination and understanding of one's own biases and assumptions. This, coupled with a genuine desire to partner in the journey along with the participants, enables the developer to deliver credible, realistic training.

The developer should be familiar with the basic theories and principles of diversity and multicultural relations. They must certainly understand the tenets of pluralism and particularism as they relate to cultural awareness in educational settings (Asante, 1991; Ravitch,1991). The developer should have a high degree of "environmental awareness;" they must be familiar with the diversity issues in the institution for which they are developing the training.

It is essential that many characteristics of the intended audience be thoroughly analyzed before beginning the initial design of the learning experience. This front-end analysis is critical to the success of the workshop. The analysis may take the form of a survey, interviews or focus groups. The analysis allows the developer to assess and meet the developmental needs of the participants, as well as identify participant's particular diversity issues and interests. The initial assessment should also measure organizational diversity issues. This will serve as a quick "culture audit" and will enable the developer to position the training in a more realistic organizational context than off-the-shelf diversity training (Thomas, 1991). In addition to considering basics like the experience, education and job responsibilities of participants, it is imperative that additional factors be considered when developing diversity training. Those factors include the following:

- racial and/or ethnic composition of intended participants
- whether English is their native language
- gender composition of intended participants
- physical limitations of participants

The exercises, media and materials selected should clearly reflect the composition of the participants. The faculty/staff developer must have at least cursory familiarity with the cultural norms of the participants. [For the purposes of this article, culture does not refer solely to race or ethnicity. It encompasses the sum way of life of a people (Kessler, 1990). It encompasses gender, religion, education and a myriad of preferences and predispositions which may differentiate groups of people.] While the developer may not know all of the intricacies of the culture of each participant, the initial assessment will yield valuable information regarding the basic cultural composition of the group. Additional useful information would include knowing the cultural composition of the populations with whom participants interact. This information would help the developer create meaningful, applicable learning experiences, media and materials.

An additional consideration during the initial assessment should be whether the participants have had previous training in the subject matter, as well as the level of that training. A final consideration is whether this training will be one of several modules or the single vehicle participants will have to raise their cultural awareness. If this workshop is the only foreseeable opportunity for training on the subject, greater attention and detail will have to be paid not only to the basic theories and principles, but also to the practical applications which facilitate training transfer.

Theoretical Foundation

After the initial considerations and concerns have been analyzed, the developer must then determine the theoretical perspective that the training will reflect. This is perhaps the most difficult task, particularly when considering the debate raging over the theories of multiculturalism. Of the most popular theoretical camps, two opposing factions have emerged, pluralism and particularism (Ravitch, 1990). While neither base their assertions and assumptions on empirical evidence, each side presents cogent arguments for increased learning and for the dissemination of information about diverse cultures. Both adamantly urge the re-education of educators via a multitude of faculty and staff development efforts. They further encourage restructuring educational systems and services so that students (at all levels) learn about a multiplicity of cultures.

The first perspective, pluralism, supports broad, encompassing notions of universality. In their efforts to reshape education, pluralists work to develop instruction reflective of America's vast array of racial, ethnic and cultural diversity. Critical in their philosophy is the focus on the common elements shared between and among groups. While this may appear contradictory, it is not. Pluralism recognizes difference without dwelling on it. Pluralism is distinguished by **inclusion**; inclusion of different races, genders, ethnicities, abilities, religions, national origins etc. Pluralism holds that with all of the differences between Americans, there are still many similarities which can unite, rather than divide. This philosophical camp seeks recognition for each group that has contributed to America's creation and continuous development. Pluralists contend that education should be presented free of racial, political or ethnic ideology (Ravitch, 1991). Ethnocentrism, be it Eurocentric or Afrocentric, has no place in pluralist educational efforts.

The contrasting perspective, that of particularism, proposes efforts aimed at heightening cultural and self-awareness; self-esteem; racial, ethnic and/or cultural pride; and academic achievement. Particularists contend that American culture, curriculum and education are fundamentally Eurocentric (Asante, 1991; Johnson, 1992). Further, because the basis is European, as opposed to African, Latin or Asian, culture, curriculum and education alienate nonwhites. Particularism fosters the notion that Eurocentrism, by its very nature, excludes and limits all aspects of academic pursuit, from research to curriculum development to actual teaching. Further assertions include the theory that neither knowledge nor the basis of how it is produced are objective or independent (King, 1990). Both are products of the dominant culture. Hence, strident efforts must be made to develop modes and methods of education reflective of the norms of those not members of the dominant culture.

When discussing pluralism and particularism, attention must be paid to Afrocentrism, a brand of particularism (Johnson,1992). It must be noted at the outset that Afrocentrists object to being characterized as particularists (Asante, 1991). They hold that pluralism and particularism are artificial distinctions created to promote and strengthen European hegemonism. Further, they hold that these artificial distinctions have been imposed to detract from the true aims of both multicultural education and multiculturalism. According to Afrocentrists, diversity or multiculturalism in education should reflect America's diverse cultural heritage. With an emphasis on the the contributions of Africa and Africans. Education should not be used as a tool to reinforce the political, economic or social aims of the dominant culture. However, it should be a tool for promoting the understanding and appreciation of diverse peoples, particularly those of African descent.

The developmental activity outlined herein is based on the pluralist notion of diversity and multiculturalism. While most pluralist concepts focus on curriculum design and development, they can extend to faculty/staff development. These concepts support and promote cohesive coexistence, mutual respect and inclusion in all aspects of the academic experience. Pluralism offers the opportunity to accept and acknowledge culturally based distinctions and differences, while still focusing on the common elements that can effectively create productive teams working to accomplish common educational goals.

Training Design

Training outcomes and objectives must be clearly determined and specified at the outset. They should be reflective of the goals guiding the institution in which the training will occur. Generally, the overall aim of an introductory awareness effort is to provide participants with a knowledge base for promoting multicultural approaches to education, in this case to faculty/staff development.

As stated earlier, the most successful outcomes or intended outcomes will be based on the specific goals and objectives of the institution. While it is tempting to develop many broad, general outcomes, to ensure the effectiveness of the training, the outcomes must be specific and limited. Intended outcomes can include the following, alone or in combination:

- participants will be able to demonstrate heightened awareness and appreciation of multicultural issues as they relate both to education and to their roles and responsibilities in the institution;
- participants will be able to demonstrate mastery of the skills required to convey information to culturally diverse students, faculty and staff;
- participants will be able to foster and promote an inclusive academic environment which embraces diversity and promotes multicultural aims;
- participants will be able to design, implement and evaluate staff development efforts aimed at diversity and multiculturalism;
- participants will be able to develop, implement and evaluate planning processes and systems geared to their specific organizational needs in the areas of valuing, managing and training for diversity.

One outcome which should be present in all diversity staff development is that participants be able to identify resources both for continued exploration of multicultural issues, and for enhancing their own faculty and staff development efforts. A wealth of resources appropriate for continued personal and professional development are available. Greater details will later be provided regarding these resources.

Topics, Activities And Implementation

This workshop is divided into four modules. Module One focuses on raising the participant's awareness to issues and elements of culture. Module Two centers around perceptions, misperceptions and organizational or institutional constraints. The third module is devoted to communication across cultures. Module Four, the last module, is geared towards action planning. The instructional matter is presented in the following order:

Module One:
- Introduction
- Terms and Theories
- Cultural Self-Awareness
- Group Awareness

Module Two:
- Barriers and Reservations
- Biases and Stereotypes
- Introduction to Action Planning

Module Three:
- Communication Across Cultures

Module Four:
- Action Planning
- Resources

Module One begins with an Introduction of the workshop leader and participants. Many techniques can be used to facilitate introductions which are directly tied to the topic. *Warm-ups For Meeting Leaders*, by Sue Bianchi, provides several useful exercises which can be modified for cultural awareness training. One possible exercise involves pairing participants into groups of two and asking that they first discuss the following questions together and then introduce each other to the group. Each introduction should include the information from the questions. The questions are as follows:

1. Name
2. Position
3. The culture(s) I know the most about?
4. The culture(s) I know the least about?
5. The culture(s) I encounter most often in the institution?
6. What I hope to gain from this learning experience?
7. What I have to offer to this learning experience?

Upon completion of the introductions, processing should focus on questions 3-7. Generally, the culture(s) participants know the most about is their own. The culture(s) participants know the least about are seldom far away, remote or removed. They are generally cultures with which the participants have frequent, even daily, contact. That contact often occurs in the classroom or other institutional environment. Frequently participants list Latin, Asian and Native American cultures as those about which they need to know more. It is important to realistically address participant expectations for this learning experience. (this refers directly to question 6, outlined previously.) Candidly address those which can and cannot be fulfilled. Finally, because this interactive workshop relies heavily on participation, encourage and emphasize potential offerings from each of the participants. Their knowledge and experience are critical to the success of this workshop.

The next step in the module is to define terms, theories and theorists central to diversity and multiculturalism. They may include, but are not limited to: culture, diversity, multiethnic, multicultural, monocultural, bicultural, pluralist and particularist. After defining key terms, it is useful to state the goals and objectives of awareness training in general, and of the specific workshop. A generally accepted goal of diversity training is to foster and promote understanding, acceptance, and productive, constructive relations among culturally different peoples (Pusch, 1979).

The next step centers around raising the cultural self-awareness of participants. Participants are asked, in small groups, to identify key elements of their own culture. These elements include commonly held perceptions and misperceptions, how conflicts are resolved, peculiarities in communication styles, key values and general attitudes about work and education. They may also explore how their culture impacts their behavior. Participants are encouraged to look inward before they begin delving into other cultures. When debriefing focus on both the common elements and the differences. Be sure to allow participants to question each other about culturally based differences. Encourage discussion and exploration of cultural similarities, as well as the differences between cultural perceptions and cultural realities. This information will be used later when biases and stereotypes are explored.

Module Two begins with the generation of lists of barriers and reservations which hinder the creation of an inclusive environment. Participants have or may expect to encounter these barriers in their institutions. Ask participants to identify attitudes, actions, organizational/institutional impediments and anything else which may prohibit or hinder them from moving towards productive multicultural relations. Record the responses generated by the group. Encourage open, candid discussion of these items as they will later be used to develop action plans. It is important that this be a productive opportunity for a frank discussion of obstacles rather than a complaint session. It should also not be reduced to an attack upon management, administration, any particular cultural group or the like. While statements should not be censored, they should be clarified whenever there is doubt as to the meaning or intent.

Following the generation of the lists of barriers and reservations, the group as a whole then begins working to identify commonly held biases and stereotypes. Again, responses are recorded. Participants are asked to identify biases and stereotypes that they have heard about particular groups. They are *not* encouraged to identify their own biases unless they choose. Again, this is an opportunity to heighten awareness, rather than an attack against any group or groups. After the lists have been created, participants are asked to take a few quiet moments to themselves and mentally dispel two of the myths. They should dispel them either by personal example or by an example related to them. They are asked to share their reflections with the group. For example, one of the stereotypes which is frequently listed is that female administrators are pushy and aggressive, lacking human compassion. One of the examples that was shared to dispel this centered around a story of a female provost in a large college who, on her lunch hour twice each week went to hold terminally ill infants at a nearby hospital. Now did this, or does any example, completely change long held biases and beliefs? Certainly not. But what it does is offer alternative perspectives on people and on cultural groups. In another group one participant from a particular ethnic group sought to dispel a myth regarding the innate laziness of his group. He told the story of how he and his siblings, as well as many others from that group, had worked full-time while pursuing college degrees and managed to graduate with honors, go on to get graduate degrees and advance in their chosen fields. These examples did not dispel long-held biases, but they did present participants with a different point of view.

Returning to the list of barriers and reservations, participants are asked to discuss the items on the list they deem most manageable, items which can be acted upon immediately by *them* so that change can be affected. It is essential that they realize that it is not sufficient to point fingers at the administration, that inclusion begins with them, that each of us can assume a positive, productive role in creating inclusive organizational environments. As they reflect upon the most practical items they should reach consensus on five that they would like to tackle for action planning. They are then asked to form teams of no more than five to work on a selected issue. The teams should be formed according to how the problem could actually be solved. In other words people who are directly involved with the barrier should form a team to plan actions to overcome it. Cross-functional and cross-sectional teams are encouraged because of the different, often divergent perspectives they bring to the problem resolution process. The teams meet briefly only to get acquainted before the start of the next module.

Module Three revolves around communication across cultures. While the other modules are multifaceted, this module has a singular focus. Communication is addressed in isolation because there are so many profound examples of the affects of poor communication and its intimate interrelation with diversity and multicultural issues. There is no way to extricate communication from issues of diversity and multiculturalism (Tyler, 1987).

Before developing this module, the training developer must assess the communication styles, patterns and norms of participants (Warren, 1994). This can be accomplished by using a few open-ended questions on the initial assessment conducted before the training is designed. The following considerations must be assessed:

- the role of nonverbal communication in the participant's cultural group;
- is English the second language for any of the participants;
- do any of the participants use braille or sign language;
- writing skills of participants;
- communication norms within the institution in which the training will occur.

The staff developer may also want to assess the most common communication problems in the organization to determine which are culturally based.

Exercises for this stage should focus on three areas of communication: verbal, nonverbal and written. The workshop leader should expose participants to the various ways in which the cultural groups with whom they most often interact communicate. The participants should discuss reactions to those forms of communication. Discussion should also center around the most effective means of communication. It is evident that this section's success is heavily dependent upon how well the developer has assessed and analyzed the participants, their culture and communication, the institution's modes of communication and the cultural composition of the institution.

Other considerations about participants' cultures (as they relate to communication) to be considered include:

- common nonverbal gestures and their meanings
- accepted conversational distance
- where and how is conversation best conducted (ie. from behind desks, in particular seating arrangements, without regard to seating or positioning)
- common greetings

The developer may also consider the following when assessing participants. How does communication differ in these potential situations:

- the discussion of controversy
- the expression of anxiety
- to convince or to sell or persuade to reprimand

Additionally, the training developer must determine the aspects of communication on which they wish to focus. For instance, if the institution relies primarily upon the spoken word, it is foolish to focus on written communication. Communication issues which may be germane, depending upon the developmental needs of the group, include "gender-speak", writing effective letters and memos, inter and intra-campus communication and specific issues surrounding communication with various student, ethnic, faculty or staff populations.

The objective of the communication will dictate the approach best suited in each culture. V. Lynn Tyler offers five questions which must be answered in cross cultural communication. These questions help in understanding the mechanics, acceptability and success of communication (Tyler, 1987). Tyler's five communication checkpoints are as follows:

1. What message do you want to communicate?
2. How important or relevant is the message to you and others?
3. What conditions, customs, concerns, attitudes or values hinder or help communication?
4. What specific interpersonal communication methods succeed and why?
5. How do you determine message effectiveness and the need for further communication?

These five questions may serve a dual purpose in the training. First, the developer can use them for preliminary audience analysis when designing the training. Second, they can be used as a handout and exercise in the third module. Participants can work in small groups of no more than five to answer each of the questions. Or, each group can take a question, apply it to an institutional setting, generate answers and report back to the group.

Because the communication module is such an essential component of the training, at the bare minimum one half day should be devoted to this section. Ideally, a full day would be spent on communication across cultures.

The fourth and final module focuses on practical applications of the theories and principles of diversity and multiculturalism. Participants will have already selected the issues they wish to address in the action planning section at the end of the second module. The groups are directed to develop functional plans with a strong likelihood of implementation. Groups will report on their plans at the end of the exercise. Their plans should draw heavily on their own insights, experiences and expectations. So this does not become an abstract academic exercise, participants should focus on goals which *they* could play an active role in actualizing.

The following steps are suggested for action planning:

1. *Specification* of clear, concise, measurable goals and objectives.
2. *Determination* of each step required to reach the goal.
3. *Assignment* of an individual as central coordinator for all tasks and action plans.
4. *Assignment* of responsibility to individuals, committees or task forces. Responsibility should be assigned for each step.
5. *Allocation* of resources.
6. *Establishment* of realistic time frames. Establishment of alternative time frames.
7. *Evaluation* of each step to ensure its feasibility. On-going evaluation to be sure that action is occurring.
8. *Final evaluation:* Was the goal attained? What else can or needs to be done? What is the next goal?

This is another of the critical junctures in the workshop. Groups must have adequate time to devise and revise their action plans. When the groups present their plans the developer should encourage involvement and discussion. This offers opportunities to enhance the plans and even garner additional resources. Often other participants have ideas that can make action plans actually happen.

It is essential that participants realize these are not simply theoretical or hypothetical activities. They are strongly urged to develop plans that they can and will implement. These points cannot be stressed enough! One of the overriding objectives of this type of workshop is to provide participants with the skills necessary to affect a move towards an inclusive institution. It is not sufficient to come up with unrealistic ideas for action. It is essential that the action planning phase yield meaningful, tangible products.

Lastly, the trainer should provide resource referrals. After the groups share their plans, the workshop leader directs them to additional resources on multiculturalism. These resources include:

- Brigham Young University's *Culturgrams,* which are available through the Publication Services of the David M. Kennedy School for International Studies;
- Journals such as *Diversity: A Critical Journal of Race and Culture,* which is copyrighted to the Madi-

son Center for Educational Affairs;

- Internal and external networks and coalitions with diverse populations

To conclude the workshop leader will want to recap the major themes of the training.

Summary

Many benefits are gained from participation in a cultural awareness workshop of this nature. Benefits include increased intercultural interaction among colleagues, a broadened knowledge base in the areas of diversity and multiculturalism.The action plans offer opportunities to develop planning processes to promote inclusive institutional environments and foster continued personal, professional and institutional development. Additionally, this workshop gives participants a framework for comparison when considering other cultural awareness training.

The interactive, reflective techniques employed herein facilitate participant interest, involvement and enthusiasm. Like most cultural awareness training, its successes are not always quantifiable. This type of training is not easily measured in numbers and statistics (Warren, 1994). Rather it is measured by the bridges built between participants; by the awareness and rejection of biases and assumptions; by hearing, respecting and eventually understanding divergent perspectives. The focus on common cultural elements, cultural self-awareness and cross-cultural awareness enables participants to begin working to form cohesive multicultural teams working to achieve common institutional aims. Ideally, they will use the knowledge and insight gained to build well-traveled bridges between diverse populations.

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Perspectives On Scholarship In Education: Undergraduate And Graduate Students' Views On Faculty Scholarship

Undergraduate and graduate education students were surveyed regarding their perceptions of the role expectations of faculty involved in teacher education. A questionnaire asked for background information and opinions regarding faculty work, pay, and role expectations. Respondents indicated that teaching was overwhelmingly the most important job of a college education professor.

STUDENTS ARE THE CLIENTS of universities and colleges. They support the universities. Although they are often given opportunities to evaluate the teaching of individual faculty members, they are seldom given a voice in how the university is managed or how the university's faculty could best serve them.

In these critical times for higher education, student opinions are particularly important to help both new and veteran teachers develop greater senses of self-competency and self-efficacy to help them carry out their course planning and professional activities with the sense that they are doing them well. Student opinions can contribute to faculty members' increased sense that professional efforts are paying off. McKeachie (1982) reported that when one experiences moderate discrepancies between one's sense of self-competency and student evaluation there is motivation to change which may result in greater effectiveness; but, when one receives poor student ratings, the threat to self may be so great that one tries to avoid role responsibilities and minimally involves him/herself in activities to defend against the threat of poor student evaluations. Student evaluations have been found to pro-

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vide valuable information about the quality of teaching that correlates with other measures of teaching effectiveness.

The multiple roles of teacher, researcher, and service provider can create role conflicts and ambiguity of priorities which create a special burden for college faculty. When one tries to explain the needs of faculty members, models such as a rational management framework, human resource framework (Plucker, 1988), or even a "scholar model" (Reich, Rosch, & Catania, 1988) may all be insufficient. Colleges of education are of particular interest because of their mixed interest in teaching and an increasing concern with research. Teacher education institutions need to strive to clearly identify which activities are important and how each faculty member may best meet the needs of the institutions as well as their own personal and professional needs.

A number of changes in American higher education have had direct impact on teaching effectiveness of professors. McKeachie (1982) reported the greatest changes include (1) the decline of professors' salaries relative to those of other professions, (2) the change in the academic marketplace with greater emphasis on research and scholarly productivity as a criterion for promotion and added competition among those seeking promotion, (3) an increased tendency to centralize decisions at higher levels of administration while decreasing individual faculty members' autonomy, and (4) increased emphasis on evaluation which all lead to a sense of loss of intrinsic satisfaction.

Most individuals entering college and university teaching have done so primarily because of the enjoyment they receive from scholarly pursuits, stimulation from colleagues and students, and satisfaction of being appreciated and respected by others. They did not enter teaching in higher education to attain high salaries or other extrinsic rewards (McKeachie, 1982).

Teaching, Research, and Service

The American professor has been asked to blend the three areas of teaching, research, and service to meet the mandates from within the university academy and beyond. While this trilogy of responsibilities is an expectation, rarely are the components assigned equal value when it comes time to evaluate professional performance. Research has come to be viewed as the first and most essential form of scholarly activity with other functions flowing through it (Boyer, 1990). However, Stanford University President Donald Kennedy, speaking at a meeting of the Stanford Academic Council, stated that teaching, in all of its forms, is the primary task of higher education. Yet, teaching is often viewed as a routine function that almost anyone can do and good teaching is an expectation.

University professors at all levels regard teaching as their central task (Finkelstein, 1984; Fox, 1985), yet the university reward systems are primarily based on research and publications—a condition Peters and Mayfied (1982) referred to as "institutional schizophrenia." Although college faculty have indicated a preference for a stronger teaching emphasis in faculty evaluations, the trend toward research domination continues (Soderberg, 1985). There is no inherent conflict between teaching and research in the teaching profession. To be good teachers, individuals must be learners, modeling for students the intellectual curiosity and disciplined inquiry that is hoped to be taught.

Service, the third component, was initially added to foster service to, and opportunities to help reshape, society through application of knowledge to practical problems. Service is routinely praised but is accorded little attention while many colleges and universities have been rejecting it as serious scholarship. To be considered scholarship, Boyer (1990) stated that service activities must be tied directly to one's special field of knowledge, be serious, demanding, and rigorous. Service is not easy to judge, because service on one committee or task may require a great deal more time and effort than service on another committee. Many contend that a need exists to develop an inclusive view that scholarship is a synthesis of the three components of teaching, research, and service.

In recent years, there has been a significant shift toward research in faculty evaluations and away from teaching and service. Marchant and Newman (1991) reported that research productivity plays the major role in promotion and tenure decisions even though evaluations of teaching are important for yearly contract renewal. The irony to all of this is that more than 60% of the faculty in 1990 felt that teaching effectiveness, not publication, should be the primary criterion for promotion (Boyer, 1990).

Compensation and status

Professional status and prestige are often determined by salary and perceived levels of influence. The expectation for professors to be good teachers, good researchers, and contributors to the community and profession through service is a demanding standard. While there has been a growing tendency to recognize and reward research over teaching, Boyer (1990) advocates that universities should be urged to extend special status and salaries to those who devote most of their time to teaching and are particularly effective in the classroom. This type of recognition would signify that teaching excellence is a hallmark of professional success.

McKeachie (1982) indicated that intrinsic motivation is requisite for effective teaching to occur; however, extrinsic rewards in the form of salaries and promotion are valued not so much by what they will buy, but rather for what they symbolize in terms of one's status and prestige among colleagues. Research including and subsequent to the Hawthorne study (Roethlisberger, 1939) has repeatedly shown that employee morale and productivity are influenced significantly by group dynamics which are affected by intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (Griffith & Neugarten, 1984). In reality, a professor can get only so much salary, only so many medals for outstanding teaching, and only two or three promotions in rank before extrinsic motivation typically stops.

Compensation plans employed by colleges and universities are often viewed as ineffective because:

- there are varying and unclear goals for higher education,
- institutions are unable to generate funds contingent upon faculty performance,
- the nature of public policy and budgetary processes,
- the difficulty of identifying "excellent" faculty, and
- the lack of valid and reliable instruments that assess scholarly competence, teaching abilities, or student learning.

The multiple roles of teacher, researcher, and service provider can create role conflicts and ambiguity of priorities which create a special burden for college faculty. Since studies have demonstrated a relationship between role conflict/ambiguity and burnout (Crane & Iwanicki, 1986; Schwab, Jackson & Schuler, 1986), this burden may result in additional stress for faculty members. Pearson and Seiler (1983) found that the major dissatisfaction of college faculty members came in the area of compensation and evaluation of performance.

The 1981 survey conducted by *Instructor Magazine* (Instructor's Second National Teacher Poll, 1981) asked 10,000 randomly selected educators to rank nine professions, including teaching. The results of this survey placed educators behind doctors, lawyers, and engineers. Teachers ranked the same as police officers. Social workers, news reporters, and politicians were ranked below the teacher. Similar results were reported by Wiedmer (1983) from a survey of the 1978-82 Teachers of the Year; however, teachers were ranked third, falling just behind doctors and lawyers.

Intrinsic and extrinsic rewards must be addressed when ways to increase teaching effectiveness and satisfaction are examined. Teaching effectiveness may decline if emphasis is placed solely on salary increases, making promotions to tenure more competitive and difficult, and if emphasis is placed on external evaluation for rewards and punishment. Ways to increase intrinsic satisfactions for teaching must be explored for increased competition for tenure may result in a less productive, rather than more productive, tenured faculty.

To determine students' perceptions on faculty roles and expectations, a one-page 23-item (mostly Likert-type) questionnaire was administered to undergraduate and graduate education students from 13 participating Renaissance Group Institutions, which are dedicated to quality undergraduate teacher education. The questionnaire asked for background information, and opinions regarding faculty work, role expectations, compensation, and work load.

The three components of teaching, research, and service must be addressed by non-tenured faculty members in order to be considered for promotion and tenure in their respective institutions. Therefore, a major component of this survey was designed to secure students' perceptions on the relative importance of these three areas of faculty roles and responsibilities.

Undergraduate and graduate education majors were chosen because they are the clients and supporters of colleges of education and their perceptions should be given consideration when decisions are made to determine how university faculty can best be used to serve their needs. By identifying the perspectives of students across institutions, it was hoped that insight into the students' views would help to clarify the perceived roles of education faculty and their work conditions. This study addressed the following questions:

1. Is teaching, research, or service perceived by undergraduate and graduate education majors to be the most important job of an education professor?
2. How do students rate education professors compared to professors in subjects other than education, regarding the quality of teaching, research, and service to their communities?
3. How do students rate the relative effectiveness of education professors regarding teacher preparation, service to community, and conducting research?
4. What is the perceived ease of getting a good grade in education courses compared to other subjects?
5. How does the status of education professors compare to that of lawyers and medical doctors?
6. Should education professors spend more time on teaching, research, or service?
7. What is the perceived academic year salary of the average education professor?
8. How many hours do students believe education professors work and how many of those hours are spent in classrooms teaching students?

Renaissance Group

The Renaissance Group was founded in 1989 by university presidents and deans of education who believe that the principles of quality teacher education found in programs at state colleges and universities provide a platform for improved programs to prepare teachers for the new world. The 17 member institutions (see Appendix A) prepare approximately ten percent of the nation's new teachers each year. This nation-wide coalition of universities aims to affirm institutional commitment, expand the knowledge base, improve educational practice, and shape national policy. Meetings are held three times each year to share ideas, shape agendas, and chart direction.

The Renaissance Group establishes direction and gains influence through the commitment of member university presidents, chief academic officers, and deans of education—each of who has accepted the challenge to become an advocate for and active participant in the reformation of teacher education.

The Renaissance Group strives to expand the knowledge base through collaborative research carried out by interinstitutional Affinity Groups made up of faculty who share an interest in specific teacher-education issues. This study was undertaken as an activity of the Role Expectations of Faculty Involved in Teacher Education Affinity Group.

Methodology

Subjects and Instrument

Questionnaires were sent to the deans of education at the 17 Renaissance Group Institutions. The institutions were chosen because they participate in the Renaissance subgroup—Affinity Group on Role Expectations of Faculty Involved in Teacher Education. Questions regarding how education faculty spend most of their time at work, why, and how their work impacts students and faculty were posed. The questions were asked to further explore the areas of scholarship described by Ernest Boyer, president of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, in *Scholarship Reconsidered.*

The education deans were asked to have the questionnaire administered to 10% of their undergraduate and graduate education majors. Respondents were requested to provide background information including sex, classification in college, academic degree completed, major academic area of study, and professional teaching and/or administrative experience. Using a Likert-type scale, respondents were to indicate their perceptions of the importance of a list of 15 variables for consideration in faculty role expectations. Finally, students were asked to respond to four open-ended questions regarding compensation and work load.

Procedure

Students provided demographic information and rated their beliefs on 15 variables regarding faculty role expectations concerning teaching, research, service, grades, status, and allocation of time using a five-point Likert-type scale: (1) strongly agree, (2) agree, (3) undecided, (4) disagree, and (5) strongly disagree. The students provided responses to four open-ended response questions regarding faculty compensation and work load. Means, standard deviations, and percentages were calculated for all of the variables within each area of the three survey areas—background information, faculty role expectations, and compensation and work load.

Results

Of the 17 institutions that were mailed questionnaires in October

1992, 13 (77%) participated in the study (see Appendix A). Of the 3,421 questionnaires mailed to the 13 participating institutions, 2,405 (70%) usable surveys were returned by December 20, 1992.

Who Were the Respondents?

There were 2,405 respondents (78% female)(see Table 1). The respondents ranged in age from 18 to 57 years with a mean average of 26.9 years (*SD* = 8.14). The majority of respondents (67%) were undergraduate education majors whose highest degrees completed were evenly split (50%) between high school and post-secondary degrees (associates, bachelors, masters, education specialists, and doctorate). Teaching experience for the group ranged between 0 and 29 years with a mean of 6.8 years (*SD* = 5.7). Their administrative experience ranged from 0 to 25 years, and they had a mean of 1.1 years experience (*SD* = 3.2). More than two-thirds of the respondents 1,655 (70%) were composed of 1,083 elementary education (45%) and 572 secondary education (24%) majors. The 745 (31%) remaining students were majoring in special education; counseling,

TABLE 1
Background Information of Student Respondents

Variable	n	%
Gender (n = 2,398)		
Male	531	22.14
Female	1,867	77.86
Total	2,398	100.00
Classification in College (n = 2,331)		
Undergraduate	1,562	67.00
Graduate	769	33.00
Total	2,331	100.00
Highest Degree Completed (n = 2,356)		
High School	1,179	50.00
Associates	255	10.83
Bachelors	746	31.68
Masters	147	6.25
Education Specialist	22	0.94
Doctorate	7	0.30
Total	2,356	100.00
Major Academic Area of Study (n = 2,400)		
Elementary Education	1,083	45.13
Secondary Education	572	23.83
Special Education	163	6.79
Psychology (Counsel., Sch., or Educ.)*	93	3.88
School Administration*	87	3.63
Other	402	16.74
Total	2,400	100.00

*Graduate degree major

Note: n = 2,405

school, or educational psychology; or "other" academic areas of study.

What Were Their Responses?

Nearly all of the students in this survey (96%) believed that of the three faculty roles of teaching, research, and service, teaching was the most important job of an education professor (see Table 2). Service was ranked second (62%) while research was viewed as least important (43%).

When compared with professors in subjects other than education, education professors were rated as doing better jobs of teaching (55%) but were less successful in providing service to their colleges and communities (45%) and researching areas of concern (35%). Education professors were rated outstanding in the preparation of teachers by 71% of the students. Only 41% of the students rated education professors outstanding in providing service to the community while little more than one-third (36%) viewed research contributions by them to be outstanding.

Regarding the three areas in which students felt education professors should spend more time, the majority (60%) felt that more time should be spent on teaching, followed by service (41%), and finally research (23%).

Grades in Education Courses

It is often expressed that higher grades are easier to earn in education courses than in courses in other fields of study. Nearly two-thirds of the students (62%) disagreed with this assumption. Less than one fourth (23%) indicated that good grades were more easily acquired in

TABLE 2
Students' Perceptions of Faculty Roles and Expectations on 2 Variables

Variable	n	%	Mean	SD
Teaching is the most important job	2,398	94.9	1.51	0.66
Research is the most important job	2,396	42.9	2.90	1.03
Service is the most important job	2,398	61.7	2.39	0.94
Education profs do a better job of teaching	2,394	54.5	2.48	1.09
Education profs do a better job of research	2,395	35.4	2.74	0.84
Education profs do a better job of service	2,395	44.5	2.56	0.89
Outstanding job of preparing teachers	2,390	71.1	2.26	0.92
Outstanding job of providing service	2,391	40.5	2.60	0.70
Outstanding job of conducting research	2,390	36.2	2.66	0.66
More time should be spent teaching	2,393	59.7	2.40	0.92
More time should be spent conducting research	2,395	23.1	3.14	0.88
More time should be spent providing service	2,389	41.2	2.72	0.86

Note: n = 2,405. Scale : 1 = Strongly agree, 2 = Agree, 3 = Undecided, 4 = Disagree, 5 = Strongly disagree.

education courses while a mere 15% were undecided on the issue.

Status, Hours Worked, and Compensation

The status of education professors was rated by the students as being significantly less important than that of practicing medical doctors and lawyers. Practicing medical doctors were rated as having more status by 71% of the respondents while lawyers were rated by 65% of the respondents as having more status (see Table 3). These figures reflect previous research findings on the status of educators when compared to other professions. Brody (1977) stated that teachers often have a sense that they (unlike doctors and lawyers) are professionals who are not valued highly in American society. The public often assumes that anyone can teach.

TABLE 3
Students' Perceptions of Education Professors' Status Compared to Medical Doctors and Lawyers

Status Variable	n	%
Less status than medical doctors	1,712	71.4
Less status than lawyers	1,549	64.7

Note: n = 2,405

Students reported that they believe college professors work a mean average of 41.3 hours per week (*SD* = 12.95) and spend an average of 17.3 of those hours in classrooms teaching students (*SD* = 8.59).

A free-response survey item yielded a wide range of salaries reported for the average education professor for the academic year, excluding summer employment (see Table 4). Reported salaries ranged from $6,000 to $949,999 with a mean average of $40,120.23 (*SD* = $23,988.73). Nearly two-thirds of the respondents (65%) estimated the salary range to be between $20,001 and $40,000. When asked if the estimated salary was appropriate, the majority of respondents (54%) stated that the compensation was inadequate. These responses seem to indicate some of the students do not have accurate information regarding salaries.

TABLE 4
Education Professors' Average Academic Salaries as Perceived by Students

Salary Range	n	%
$ 0 - 10,000	3	0.1
10,001 - 20,000	47	2.0
20,001 - 30,000	556	24.5
30,001 - 40,000	926	40.9
40,001 - 50,000	540	23.7
50,001 - 60,000	136	5.8
60,001 - 70,000	42	1.8
70,001 - 80,000	19	0.8
80,001 - 90,000	2	0.1
90,001 - 949,999	8	0.3
Total	2,279	100.0

Note: n = 2,405

Discussion

Teaching in Relation to Research and Service

Students perceive teaching to be the most important element of the three areas of responsibility university faculty are charged with fulfilling as members of the university academy—teaching, research, and service. In fact, if possible, students believe faculty should spend more time teaching, followed by providing service, and finally conducting research.

Although research and publications receive added emphasis in many of the major institutions when consideration is given to faculty for promotion and tenure, students deem it to be the least important factor, in terms of the importance of the job role, the quality of work performed, and actual output. Since students are clients of the universities and colleges, and are the ones most directly affected by the teaching and professional interaction with university faculty, it would seem that the strong attitudes conveyed regarding teaching should be given more consideration by colleges and universities regarding faculty promotion and tenure concerns.

Students are perhaps not aware of the types of activities in which faculty are engaged in the areas of service and research. If research is to continue to receive added emphasis for promotion and tenure, and is in the reward systems employed by colleges and universities, then it is incumbent upon faculty members to inform, involve, and engage students in being consumers and practitioners of research and providers of service.

Students reported that teaching was the most important job role of university faculty, and Boyer (1990) reported that more than 60% of the faculty identified that teaching effectiveness, not publication, should be the criterion for promotion. Universities and colleges should reassess what it is that the clients deem to be most important and seek to meet their needs and reward faculty for doing such—through promotion, tenure, and monetary reward.

Status and Salary

Education professors were viewed as having significantly less status than medical doctors and lawyers. Although education professors were deemed to be important, they were definitely not perceived to be of the same social status as doctors and lawyers. The mean average salary for education professors was reported by students to be slightly over $40,000, which was viewed as being too low. Recognizing that professors spend in excess of 41 hours on the average per week, 17 of those hours teaching, students expressed the need for more teaching, higher salaries, and greater status for the profession. This draws attention to the perceived importance of the job and notion that the salary is not commensurate with the job held, performance rendered, and importance of position to society.

Conclusion

The use of student evaluations of teacher performance in the classroom has long been a part of the faculty evaluation process that is incorporated in university and college promotion and tenure practices.

This study underscores the importance that students place on the quality of teaching they are exposed to and are directly affected by. It is evident that students are either not aware of the importance that institutions place on faculty members conducting research and providing service, or they deem these two areas to be significantly less important to their immediate and personal needs.

Faculty members have a limited amount of time to perform all the tasks that are required and there must be a delicate balance made to ensure that teaching, research, and service are not eliminated and/or conducted in a mediocre manner. The fact that there is such a discrepancy between what students and faculty deem to be most important—teaching—compared to what institutions of higher education deem to be most important—research and publication—is worthy of further consideration and assessment. Faculty members must be stimulated to continue to perform at peak performance which is nurtured through intrinsic and extrinsic motivation methods. There must be a closer alignment between what faculty and institutions of higher learning value and reward.

Although students are not often given opportunities to voice their opinions in how universities and colleges are managed, it is perhaps time that they are allowed and encouraged to express how the university's faculty could best serve them. After all, they are the clientele that colleges and universities are striving to serve. University administrators are in the driver's seat to determine procedures that will serve to reward faculty performance and accomplishments to best meet student needs, provide for sound professional growth, and enable professors to allocate time appropriately to worthwhile professional endeavors that will enable both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards to be realized.

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APPENDIX A

Renaissance Group Institutions and Participation in the Study

Institution	Participation
1. Ball State University	Yes
2. California State University at Bernardino	No
3. Eastern Michigan University	Yes
4. Emporia State University	Yes
5 Georgia Southern University	No
6. Illinois State University	Yes
7. Middel Tennessee State University	Yes
8. Millersville University of Pennsylvania	Yes
9. Norfolk State University	Yes
10. Sam Houston State University	Yes
11. Towson State University	Yes
12. University of Alabama at Birmingham	Yes
13. University of Northern Colorado	No
14. University of Northern Iowa	Yes
15. University of Wisconsin-Oshkosh	No
16. Western Kentucky University	Yes
17. Winthrop College	Yes

Student Survey
Role Expectations of Faculty Involved in Teacher Education

PART I: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

For each of the following items, please fill in the blank or circle the appropriate item.

1. Gender M F 2. Age ______Years

3. Current Classification in College (circle one)

Fr Soph Jr Sr. Masters 6th Year Doctoral

4. Highest degree completed

H.S. Associate Bachelor's Master's 6th Year Doctorate

5. If graduate student, ______ years of teaching and/or ______ years of administration.

6. Please circle major academic area of study:

Counseling Psychology Elementary Education Educational Psychology School Administration

School Psychology Secondary Education Special Education Other____________

PART II: FACULTY ROLE EXPECTATIONS

For each of the following statements, circle the letter(s) that best represent your belief.

SA=Strongly Agree, A=Agree, U=Undecided, D=Disagree, SD=Strongly Disagree

1. *Teaching* is the most important job of a college professor in education SA A U D SD

2. *Research* is the most important job of college professor in education SA A U D SD

3. *Service* is the most important job of a college professor in education SA A U D SD

4. Compared to professors in subjects other than education, education professors do a *better job of teaching* SA A U D SD

5. Compared to professors in subjects other than education, education professors do a *better job at researching areas of concern* SA A U D SD

6. Compared to professors in subjects other than education, education professors do a *better job of providing service to their college and to their community* SA A U D SD

7. College professors in education do an outstanding job of *preparing teachers*

8. College professors in education do an outstanding job of *providing service* to the community SA A U D SD

9. College professors in education do an outstanding job of *conducting research* SA A U D SD

10. It is easier to get a good grade in education courses than in *other subjects* SA A U D SD

11. College professsors in education have more status than practicing *medical* doctors SA A U D SD

12. College professors in education have more status than *lawyers* SA A U D SD

13. College professors in education should spend more time *teaching* SA A U D SD

14. College professors in education should spend more time *on research* SA A U D SD

15. College professors in education should spend more time *providing service* SA A U D SD

PART III: COMPENSATION AND WORK LOAD

For each of the following items, please fill in the blank or circle the appropriate item.

1. How much money do you think the average college professor in education earns during the academic year (not counting summer employment)?

$________ per academic year

2. In your opinion, this amount of money is (circle one): too little about right too much

3. How many hours per week do you think college professors in education work?

____ hours per week

4. How many hours per week do you believe college professors spend in classrooms teaching students?

____ hours per week

Thank you for your time and responses! 9/7/92

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By Erin Porter, Debra K. Meyer & Anastasia S. Hagen

Toward an Exemplary Teaching Videotape Library for Faculty Development

While the use of videotape in faculty development is certainly not a new idea, this library project for our Center evolved from the contemporary, specific needs on our campus. The tape library is a statement to our faculty that many personal styles are effective and that many teaching methods are possible and acceptable.

WHILE THE USE OF videotape in faculty development is certainly not a new idea (Adams & Biddle, 1970; Bilberstine, 1971; Bloom, 1969; Perlberg, 1983), the Exemplary Teaching Videotape Library project for our Center developed out of contemporary, specific needs on our campus. The large physical size of the campus and the related department or college isolationism present particular challenges for our faculty and Center staff alike. The videotape library was viewed initially as an additional resource for faculty members to easily access effective teaching methodologies within and across disciplines.

During the Fall 1990 semester, we determined that there was a need for a videotape library to document effective teaching styles and methodologies on the University of Texas at Austin campus. Four major reasons for the need were: (1) the large undergraduate population (over 47,000 students) that requires a large full-time and part-time faculty pool (over 3,000 faculty), (2) isolation of departments and colleges from each other on this expansive campus, (3) the growing emphasis on documenting effective teaching for promotion and tenure, and (4) the increasing demand on the Center for assistance with teaching issues across the campus. The goal of the project was to tap the rich resource of experienced faculty in helping us put together this videotape library.

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Development Process for the Videotape Library

Over a seven-month period, names of teaching award winners were gathered for consideration for the Exemplary Teaching Videotape Library. The award winners had been recognized by students' groups and the ex-student's association as well as by department, college, or school committees. The thirty-six faculty contacted for the initial phase represented a wide range of academic disciplines, teaching styles, gender and ethnicity, academic titles, and other characteristics.

We sent our initial letter, consent form, and scheduling form to each of the 36 faculty members early in the Fall 1991 semester. In addition to the request letter, we included a second sheet for basic information concerning the specific class session we would tape. The third sheet was a simple release form that provided the Center staff with permission to continue the preparation steps for videotaping.

There were thirty-one responses to the request letter. For the first phase of the project, we produced 15 tapes that are of reasonably good quality. An additional five classroom presentations were taped, but due to equipment failure or poor tape quality, they could not be used for the library. The taping sessions were scheduled according to the convenience of the faculty member and the availability of Center personnel. Videotape equipment and personnel from the Center were used to tape all the classes.

The faculty member and the students were both filmed to provide as much classroom reality as possible for tape viewers. The Center team felt strongly that instructor tapes should be viewed in conjunction with the students' tapes, so that the viewers could observe student behaviors during the lecture or class discussion. After completing the master tapes, reproductions with title leaders were made by a private tape copying service. The originals are in a secure area of the Center. The videotape copies are available for viewing from 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m. by appointment five days a week. Center consultants are available if needed to advise faculty on the selection of tapes that best illustrate specific teaching styles and methodologies.

A videotape index also is available with the tapes in the Center library. The index includes the following information: (1) a set of short instructions for tape viewers, (2) an alphabetized list of faculty indicating department, number of students, and course title, (3) a subject index to assist faculty and Center staff with tape selection, (4) an index of seven teaching categories helps provide additional assistance for faculty viewers, (5) a summary page for each faculty videotape that indicates specific variables with high interrater agreement, and (6) a videotape evaluation form to provide the Center team with viewer responses. When a faculty members arrive for their appointments to view tapes, they are asked to read the instruction page, then directed to the library to locate tapes and monitors or to ask questions about the equipment or process. Each viewer receives an evaluation form to evaluate how helpful viewing the videotape(s) was in meeting their needs.

Development of Evaluation Form

To obtain a quantitative summary of teaching skills for each video, we developed the "Evaluation of Classroom Skills" rating form (see Appendix A). This form is a condensed version of criteria from several forms we have used in our work (see also Cooper, 1988; Lowman, 1991; Weaver & Cotrell, 1987). Through a three-step process, we viewed samples of the videotape library to determine the five categories needed on the rating form: Organization, Content, Interaction, Verbal/Non-Verbal, and Use of Media. Each of these five categories was subdivided into individual items for a total of 34 items. A second page was attached to the itemized evaluation form to allow space for more open-ended rater comments not found on the evaluation form. Although the development of the form is an on-going process, we would like to share our findings in terms of (a) the reliability in using the form, (b) the degree of difficulty in obtaining agreement by item, and (c) the overall frequencies with which each item was used.

Interrater agreement. "Interrater agreement" is the degree of consensus between raters using the same evaluation instrument in the same context independently of each other. One of our primary goals in developing the "Evaluation of Classroom Skills" was to summarize as objectively as possible the skills demonstrated in each video. Therefore, we wanted to check that the rating form would be used similarly by different raters.

Each video was viewed individually by two of three raters and each item was rated on a five-point Likert scale. Each of the authors served as a rater. We practiced using the rating form on two faculty videos not included in the library. After independently rating the first video, we discussed categories where there were discrepancies of more than one point. Following that consensus session, we independently viewed and rated a second video. At the end of the second practice video, there were no categories where discrepancies were greater than one point.

We defined "agreement" as both raters giving the instructor the same value for a category. Then we calculated interrater agreement using *gamma* (William L. Hays, personal communication, November 11, 1990), which is the ratio of average agreements to the sum of the average agreements and the average disagreements. A gamma of 0 indicates no agreement and a gamma of 1 indicates perfect agreement. Our criterion was a gamma of .80 or higher. For the 15 videos in this project, the range of interrater agreement was from .59 to .90. The average interrater agreement was .82 (SD = .09). Only one tape (the .59) had to be coded by a third rater. Thus, we were very consistent with our use of the Likert scale ratings for this form.

Agreement on individual evaluation items. Because we view the evaluation form as an on-going project, we also were interested in determining the categories with good and poor agreement. Table 1 summarizes our findings. We had perfect agreement on 14 of the 34 items, and good agreement (80% or more of the time) on 15 items. This left poor agreement on only five items: three were organizational, one was verbal/non-verbal, and one was use of media. Agreement on the organizational items might have been hampered because each rater had different background knowledge of the lecture. For example, some of the raters also videotaped the lectures they rated; therefore, there might have been cues that were present for them in rating these items, but absent for the first-time viewer. The disagreements on the "effective body movement and gestures" and "overheads/chalkboard content was clear and well-organized" also may be due to the raters' varying criteria on what constitutes each category. These five categories need to be defined more explicitly to use the rating form more consistently, as well as to interpret our ratings for potential clients.

Evaluation of the frequency of use of categories. Although the rating form highlighted items that were thought to be important to effective instruction and learning,

TABLE 1
Interrater Agreement for Individual Evaluation Items

	Perfect Agreement (100%)	Good Agreement (80% >)	Poor
Content	Main ideas are clear Relevancy of main ideas Related to prior knowledge	Sufficient variety Higher order thinking Vocabulary definitions given	
Organization	Effective transitions	Intro. captured attention Summarized main ideas Previewed topics	Intro. stated organization Clear organizational plan Reviewed
Interaction	Feedback was informative Good rapport	Questions at different levels Sufficient wait time Students asked questions Incorporated student responses	
Verbal/Non-Verbal	Articulation/pronunciation Extemporaneous Accent was not distracting Good volume Eye contact with students Confident	Language was understandable No verbal pauses Effective voice quality Appropriate rate Enthusiastic	Effective body movement
Use of Media	Easy to read Provided outline/handouts	Clear and well-organized	Overheads/chalkboard clear and well-organized

some items were frequently omitted by the raters. Table 2 summarizes the frequency with which each item was coded. Furthermore, if an item was omitted, it was not included in the calculation of interrater agreement. The items that were coded infrequently (less than half of the time) were mostly the result of the absence of these features in the 15 videos. For example, instructors rarely concluded by summarizing (i.e., they talked until the bell rang), and they did not preview topics by connecting the current topic to future classes. In addition, few lecturers had an accent, few used any "visual aids" other than the traditional overhead and chalkboards, and few provided an outline or handout to the students.

Present Uses of the Videotape Library

Even before stage one of the project was completed, the initial objectives had expanded. The videotape library immediately began providing faculty development consultants with improvement activities to provide greater flexibility for client experiences (Erickson, 1986; Weimer, 1990). Teaching excerpts from the videotape library have been used for TA and International TA (ITA) training programs due to graduate student requests to see faculty as well as TA examples of effective teaching.

The tapes and the evaluation form developed by our Center staff have also served as prototype training models for departments in the developmental stages of adopting

TABLE 2
Frequency of Use of Evaluation Items

	Always (100%)	Sometimes (75-99%)	Usually (50-74%)
Content	Sufficient variety	Main ideas clear Relevancy of main ideas Higher order thinking Related to prior knowledge	Definitions given
Organization	Intro. captured attention	Clear organizational plan Reviewed	Intro. stated organization Effective transitions
Interaction	Good rapport	Sufficient time wait Students asked questions	Questions at different levels Feedback was informative Incorporated student responses
Verbal/Non-Verbal	Extemporaneous Effective voice quality Volume sufficient Appropriate rate Effective body movement Eye contact with students Confident Enthusiastic	Understandable language Articulation/pronunciation No verbalized pauses	
Use of Media			Clear and well-organized

peer evaluation into the tenure and promotion review process (Brinko, 1990; Evertson & Holley, 1981; Millis, 1992). The videotapes provide teaching assistance for faculty with confidentiality for those not yet comfortable with higher risk behaviors such as peer sharing (Smith & LaCelle-Peterson, 1991). Faculty clients and staff have combined the examination of exemplary peer teaching with self-evaluation via videotaped classroom experiences when clients reach that confidence level. In both styles of videotape review and analysis, faculty clients increased their professional knowledge of essential presentational issues (Daly, 1986; Murray, 1987; Weaver & Cotrell, 1987) and implicit theories of teaching (Taylor-Way, 1989).

The faculty tapes also are being used for other programs in the Center. A collage tape was put together for a workshop for a POD conference, campus workshops for teaching assistants in several disciplines, and for a peer evaluation exercise at the Experienced Faculty Conference in January of 1993. Over twenty faculty clients have viewed all or parts of several tapes. These viewings have most often been with a consultant present, but seven clients have viewed tapes on their own. The first advertisement for the completed library tapes was published in the Spring 1993 Center newsletter. Additional public relations will be done to advertise the tapes and to maximize their use. Since we did not have extensive funds nor personnel, these tapes are not of the most professional quality, but their use has expanded our assets at the Center.

Restrictions

We have shared a limited number of tapes within the University of Texas System schools but are not yet in the position with funds or equipment to provide tapes on a commercial basis. We have been contacted by several out of state schools as they began to prepare their own videotape library. Some schools have been given funding for their projects that will allow them to hire professionals to videotape the teachers, other campuses are facing our dilemma of no extra funding and less than professional productions. Regardless of the logistics, we believe that the overall educational value of faculty peer tapes may be more relevant than commercially produced tapes. Just as teaching faculty usually find peer faculty advice most credible, they may also view campus peer teaching examples more pertinent to their own classroom experiences.

Summary and Future Directions

As we work with the tapes and receive faculty responses about the videotapes, we will find other ways to employ them in our work at the Center. The staff members working with teaching assistants and assistant instructors on campus are utilizing faculty collage tapes to illustrate specific teaching behaviors. The potential for training in peer evaluation for faculty members may be a major use at this campus for the next two or three semesters.

The Exemplary Teaching Videotape Library is a statement to faculty that many personal styles are effective, many teaching methods are possible and acceptable, that teaching methods from one discipline can be applicable to another, and that the commonalties in effective teaching far outweigh the differences in content.

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Appendix A
Evaluation of Classroom Skills

CONTENT

Main ideas are clear and specific	1	2	3	4	5	(Excellent)
Sufficient variety in supporting information	1	2	3	4	5	
Relevancy of main ideas was clear	1	2	3	4	5	
Higher order thinking was required	1	2	3	4	5	
Instructor related ideas to prior knowledge	1	2	3	4	5	
Definitions were given for vocabulary	1	2	3	4	5	

ORGANIZATION

Introduction captured attention	1	2	3	4	5	(Excellent)
Introduction stated organization of lecture	1	2	3	4	5	
Effective transitions (clear w/summaries)	1	2	3	4	5	
Clear organizational plan	1	2	3	4	5	
Concluded by summarizing main ideas	1	2	3	4	5	
Reviewed by connecting to previous classes	1	2	3	4	5	
Previewed by connecting to future classes	1	2	3	4	5	

INTERACTION

Instructor questions at different levels	1	2	3	4	5	NA (Excellent)
Sufficient wait time	1	2	3	4	5	NA
Students asked questions	1	2	3	4	5	NA
Instructor feedback was informative	1	2	3	4	5	NA
Instructor incorporated student responses	1	2	3	4	5	NA
Good rapport with students	1	2	3	4	5	NA

VERBAL/NON-VERBAL

Language was understandable	1	2	3	4	5	(Excellent)
Articulation and pronunciation clear	1	2	3	4	5	
Absence of verbalized pauses (er, ah, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	
Instructor spoke extemporaneously	1	2	3	4	5	
Accent was not distracting	1	2	3	4	5	NA
Effective voice quality	1	2	3	4	5	
Volume sufficient to be heard	1	2	3	4	5	
Rate of delivery was appropriate	1	2	3	4	5	
Effective body movement and gestures	1	2	3	4	5	
Eye contact with students	1	2	3	4	5	
Confident	1	2	3	4	5	

Enthusiastic 1 2 3 4 5

USE OF MEDIA

Overheads/Chalkboard content was clear and well-organized	1	2	3	4	5	NA (Excellent)
Visual aids can be easily read	1	2	3	4	5	NA

Instructor provided an outline/handouts 1 2 3 4 5 NA

STRENGTHS: (e.g. metacurriculum, use of comparisons & contrasts, positive feedback, opportunity provided for student questions)

WEAKNESSES: (e.g., nervous pacing or hand gestures, no eye contact, speaking down to the students, etc.)

Client Name:______________________________Date:____________________
Department:______________________________Phone:____________________

Appendix B

Doe, Jane
Economics

SAMPLE INFORMATION SHEET

Indices for this Summary Sheet:

- **Technical Information**
- **Question/answer format**
- **Organization of material**
- **Interactive method**
- **Use of humor**
- **Lecture method**
- **Effective delivery**
- **Large classes**

Instructor: Jane Doe
Department: Economics
Course: Money, Banking, and Economic Conditions
Course Level: Upper Division Undergraduate
Number of students: 160

Classroom setting: Auditorium seating with fixed rows of seats/desks on a slight riser. Lighting at the front of this room is not sufficient to see chalkboard very well. Microphone is used by the instructor.

Instructor's Philosophy of Undergraduate Education: "Undergraduates deserve to be treated as individuals, no matter what the class size. I like to provide detailed guidance through the course material rather than leaving students to grapple with difficult analytical material by themselves. Students, especially those new to a field, require continual feedback to enable them to monitor their own comprehension. Therefore, I think that an instructor has a responsibility to provide ample opportunities outside the classroom."

Evaluation summary of this tape:

Interrater agreement = .90
Items highly rated:

Content:
- Main ideas are clear and specific
- Sufficient variety in supporting information
- Relevancy of main ideas was clear
- Higher order thinking was required
- Instructor related ideas to prior knowledge

Organization:
- Introduction captured attention
- Effective transitions
- Clear organizational plan
- Reviewed by connecting to past classes
- Previewed by connecting to future classes

Interaction:
- Sufficient wait time
- Students asked questions
- Instructor incorporated student responses
- Good rapport with students

Verbal/Non-Verbal:
- Language was understandable
- Articulation & pronunciation clear
- Absence of verbalized pauses
- Instructor spoke extemporaneously
- Effective voice quality
- Volume sufficient to be heard
- Rate of delivery was appropriate
- Effective body movement and gestures
- Eye contact with students
- Confident
- Enthusiastic

Use of Media:
- Instructor provided outline/handouts

Appendix C

Center For Teaching Effectiveness

Videotape Evaluation Form

Please circle one answer for each statement:

The scale is from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

1. Viewing the videotape/s was an effective method to improve my teaching 1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

2. I could easily identify effective teaching methods in the tape/s I viewed. 1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

3. The videotape/s were helpful for my purposes. 1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

4. The index for the videotape library was clear and useful to me. 1 2 3 4 5

Comments:

Please give detaided answers to the following questions.

5. How did you approach viewing the tapes? Did you view an entire tape/s? Did you view two or more tapes for short periods of time? Why did you choose your particular approach?

6. What criteria did you use in selecting the tape/s you viewed? Why?

7. Do you think that you would have gained more if you had viewed the tape with a CTE consultant? Why?

8. Would you return to view additional tape/s or recommend the tape library to peers? Why?

Thank you for your responses. Please leave this at the front desk or return it through the Campus Mail: Center for Teaching Effectiveness, Main 2200, 12100.

Your Department:__________________________________

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By Penelope Lisi, Dimitrios Pachis & Carol Williams

Beyond Isolationism: Faculty Orientation as a Long-Term Commitment

Traditional faculty orientation programs are brief events that rarely help build a sense of community. This article describes a successful program that connects new faculty to information, resources, and to each other. The program includes three components scheduled throughout the academic year: Two-day Seminar, New Faculty Mentoring Program, and Faculty Dialogues.

FACULTY ARE the most precious resource of any college or university. Those institutions which attract, retain and develop talented faculty and those able to build community among faculty and staff will gain an edge in the increasingly competitive world of higher education. Given the extraordinary time and expense of recruiting faculty today, one would expect that a vigorous effort would be made to welcome and orient new faculty. A surprising number of institutions, however, have no formal programs aimed at orienting, supporting and developing new faculty.

Traditional faculty orientation programs are designed by administrators to explain campus rules and regulations (Boice, 1992). They rarely address the institutional mission, its priorities and values, and the mutual expectations between the faculty and the institution. In general, orientation programs do not provide a comprehensive support system designed to meet the personal and professional needs of new faculty; they rarely inspire and educate new faculty about the need for continuous learning. They may even perpetuate false ideas about narrow responsibilities on the part of the professoriate (e.g., responsibilities for teaching a few course sections and conducting individual research), which are detrimental to building quality in higher education (Seymour, 1993).

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Eastern Connecticut State University (ECSU) is a medium-sized multipurpose university. Of some 4,500 students (2,800 full-time), more than half reside on campus. Eastern Connecticut State University strives to create an intimate, small-college atmosphere by emphasizing personal attention and excellent teaching. Until two years ago, Eastern Connecticut State University conducted a perfunctory, "one-shot" orientation program. In 1992 a commitment was made to an orientation that would be part of a long-term faculty development program.

Eastern employs approximately 128 full-time faculty. A series of early retirement incentives has led to significant faculty turnover. In recent years, Eastern has been hiring approximately 15 new faculty each year. The university is committed to achieving a diverse faculty. In the last two years, 60 percent of new faculty hired have been women and 33 percent have been minorities. Among tenure-track new hires, 63 percent have been female and 42 percent minority. The new orientation program was developed collaboratively by faculty and administrators in an attempt to meet the needs of these incoming faculty.

Program Goals

The overall goal of orientation is to help new faculty in their assimilation into the life and culture of the institution. Related goals are to establish a support network, build campus community, and encourage excellence in teaching and creative activity. Through the orientation we attempt to connect new faculty to information, to resources—both human and material—and to each other. We hope that the connections forged at orientation will buffer new faculty from feelings of isolation and powerlessness that might lead to low faculty morale, low levels of involvement on campus and ultimately a failure to retain new faculty.

Specific objectives include sharing practical information about institutional priorities, services, resources, policies, and procedures; providing opportunities for new faculty to discuss aspects of adjustment with seasoned faculty and administrators, including managing stress and politics; and assisting new faculty in meeting their contractual responsibilities of teaching, research/creative activity, and service.

Theoretical Underpinnings of Program Design

Several writers have made suggestions about effective faculty development programming. Loucks-Horsley (1987) stresses the importance of opportunities for collegial interaction, strong administrative support, opportunities for risk-taking and experimentation, and the integration of individual goals with institutional goals. Schuster and Wheeler (1990) emphasize the construction of "bridges" or linkages and integrated personal, professional, and organizational development. Additionally, they suggest the importance of faculty ownership of such programs, the development of a philosophical base for the program, use of in-house resources, and summative and formative evaluation of programs. Weimer (1990) suggests that instruction can be positively affected through a "flexible mix" of improvement activities. These might include readings, videotaping, dialogues or other such interactive activities, seminars and workshops, and small group work. Stanley and Chism (1991) and van der Bogert (1991) found that new faculty need to feel welcome at the institution, have a sense of belonging, and have opportunities for collegial support. Boice (1992) suggests that opportunities be included for new faculty to meet other "new hires," who may become friends as well as collaborators. Orientation programs which incorporate many of these characteristics of effective faculty development are more likely to be successful.

Program Components

Eastern's New Faculty Orientation consists of three components: a two-day Seminar prior to the start of the first year, a New Faculty Mentoring Program, and the Faculty Dialogues. The program is designed to be problem-centered and sequenced over the academic year, with a climate that is informal and experiential.

New Faculty Seminar

In order to meet our objectives, the two-day New Faculty Seminar addresses four key areas. They include surviving and thriving in the institution, classroom effectiveness, advising responsibilities, and personal and professional growth.

As illustrated in Figure 1, the agenda included several activities for faculty to get to know each other. During the Concentric Circles exercise (Katz, 1978), faculty shared with each other their feelings about starting work at Eastern, their individual professional goals, their thoughts about balancing teaching and creative activity, as well as past significant teaching moments. After viewing a videotape about "Teaching at Eastern", new faculty identified the three most important characteristics of good teaching and discussed those traits in small groups.

An especially valuable component of the two-day Seminar is discussion of four case studies on teaching and learning. The cases, developed and written by Eastern's Faculty Development Committee and the Center for Educational Excellence, illustrate typical scenarios that new faculty might encounter. Topics include balancing personal and professional demands, teaching a diverse student population, dilemmas around student assessment, and dealing with the mixed-age classroom.

In response to suggestions from faculty who went through the orientation in 1992, in 1993 we devoted a substantial amount of time on the

FIGURE 1
Agenda for Two-day Seminar for New Faculty

Day One

SURVIVING AND THRIVING AT ECSU

8:45 am	Coffee and Conversation
9:00 am	Welcome and Program Overview
9:20 am	Introduction of New Faculty and Staff: Concentric Circles
10:00 am	Overview of the University and Personnel Issues
10:45 am	Break
11:00 am	The Local Community
11:45 am	Lunch with Welcoming Remarks from the President Eastern's History and Culture: Bright Spots, Challenges and Initiatives for 1993-94

TEACHING RESPONSIBILITIES

1:00 pm	Videotape: Teaching at Eastern
2:00 pm	Case Studies Discussions
3:15 pm	Media Support Services
3:45 pm	Wine and Cheese Reception Optional information about living in the local area

Day Two

TEACHING RESPONSIBILITIES - CONTINUED

8:45 am	Coffee and Conversation
9:00 am	About our Students: Teaching in the Diverse Classroom

PERSONAL AND PROFESSIONAL GROWTH

10:00 am	Support through Mentoring
10:30 am	Break
10:45 am	Opportunities for and Development of Grant Proposals
11:00 am	Professional Development: Issues and Opportunities, Expectations and Resources
12:00	Lunch Directed Discussion about the General Education Curriculum

ADVISING RESPONSIBILITIES

1:30 pm	Student Advising Workshop
3:30 pm	Adjourn

second day to discussing personal and professional growth opportunities. Making use of in-house expertise, we offered a workshop on effective mentoring relationships and we spent time on the topic of external funding sources for faculty initiatives.

Mentoring Component

As one means for extending the orientation throughout the academic year, all new faculty are invited to participate in the New Faculty Mentoring Program. In early fall, each participating new faculty member is paired with a seasoned faculty member for the academic year. The seasoned faculty member has been drawn from a "bank" of faculty members who have volunteered or been nominated by their department chairs or dean to serve in this capacity. New faculty and mentors complete a Mentoring Program Registration on which they describe teaching and research interests, responsibilities, and experiences. In order to avoid any anxieties that might be tied to evaluation, mentors and mentees are matched cross-departmentally whenever possible. In 1993 approximately half of the new faculty volunteered for the mentoring program.

One of the directors of the mentoring program advises the mentors and mentees about how to make the most of the relationship. In volunteering for the program, mentors and mentees agree to meet regularly and are encouraged to meet weekly if possible. Social gatherings are encouraged; the first formal gathering is an afternoon sail on Long Island Sound during a fall weekend.

Dialogue Series

As a final step to assure that new faculty continue to meet as a network, the New Faculty Dialogues were created. The Dialogues are a series of two-hour seminars on teaching issues or institutional programs. Topics for 1992-93 were selected based on feedback from

Figure 2
New Faculty Dialogue Topics, 1993-1994

FALL SEMESTER

The Library Connection
Identifying Your Teaching and Learning Styles
BAFA BAFA—A Simulation about Cross-Cultural Communication

SPRING SEMESTER

Fostering Gender Equity in the College Classroom
Beyond the Lecture: Models of Teaching
Multicultural Perspectives and Teaching Approaches

faculty who went through the program in 1992. Participation in the Dialogues during 1992-93 was lower than expected, partly because of schedule conflicts and partly because new faculty reported being extremely busy. Consequently, in 1993 we offered fewer programs and timed them to be more compatible with faculty teaching schedules. All faculty, not just new faculty, were invited to attend the Dialogues. In 1993 approximately half of the new faculty participated.

Program Evaluation

New faculty provided feedback to program planners at two points: immediately after the two-day Seminar and again during a meeting of new faculty at the beginning of the second semester. Participants indicated they were very pleased with the information and skills they acquired by participating in the program and expressed appreciation for the effort to welcome them to the campus community.

New faculty praised many aspects of the orientation program. They uniformly valued the opportunities to meet both new and "seasoned" faculty, to discuss issues of interest and concern at the Faculty Dialogues, and to receive guidance and support from the mentoring program. One faculty member summed up the orientation experience as follows: "Thank you for the orientation—from the beginning through this follow-up session today. It was more than information, it was an invitation into the life of the community here, and every activity has had the stamp of your personal hospitality. Your enthusiasm was contagious and is probably the reason that such a strong sense of camaraderie developed. It has made me think more like a professional."

In addition to feedback from participants, program planners have made observations about new faculty assimilation into the culture and life of the institution. Almost to a person, the new faculty were able quickly to develop a high degree of involvement in the campus community. They developed a grasp of the power structure of the institution and were able to use this knowledge to accomplish professional goals.

Conclusion

We have been impressed by the productivity of the new faculty at Eastern who have participated in our orientation program. Their visibility in campus events and their attitudes toward students, teaching, research and community service have been laudable. Productivity measured in terms of publications, presentations, grants, and program development has exceeded the average for the University. For example, in her first year, one new faculty member has received three grants. She made an effective case for equipping a new laboratory and sought the advice of faculty and administrators on improving her classroom teaching. Another faculty member, in addition to publishing and carrying a full teaching load, exerted leadership in program development,

Figure 3
KEYS TO A SUCCESSFUL NEW FACULTY ORIENTATION PROGRAM

1) Provide administrative support—An extended orientation will require significant planning, scheduling, and clerical support.

2) Involve faculty in planning and executing the orientation—At Eastern the Faculty Development Committee worked with the planners of orientation to identify important issues and to lead discussions during the two-day Seminar.

3) Timing is critical—The best conceived orientation will not be effective if most of the new faculty cannot attend. Orientation activities scheduled for later in the semester must take into account the teaching schedules of the faculty.

4) Focus the dialogue of the orientation on issues of importance to the life of the institution—Case studies and small group discussions should center around vital faculty roles in teaching, research, and service.

5) Plan an extended orientation—Social activities help foster community and are legitimate components.

6) Minimize "talking heads"—In your orientation, model active teaching approaches such as small group discussions and case study discussions. Avoid lecturing to the faculty. Lunches and receptions are a good way to have administrators greet new faculty and informally share information.

7) Provide written materials for future reference—Background material on the institution is better presented in written form. Appropriate materials might include a faculty handbook, tenure and promotion policies, library information, personnel benefits, the university calendar, demographic information about students, resources on teaching and learning.

8) Provide new faculty with promised support, access to resources and recognition for their accomplishments—Trust in the institution can be undermined if key people fail to deliver on promises and do not recognize the accomplishments of faculty.

9) Don't neglect the part-time faculty and new administrative staff—Adjunct faculty and new staff also need orientation. Discussion of case studies can effectively convey the teaching culture of the institution.

10) Don't forget to evaluate your program—This will help you improve future programs and suggest ideas for continuing to foster the adjustment of new faculty to your institution. Ideally, long-term evaluation should focus on adjustment to the institution, job satisfaction, and productivity.

11) Connect orientation to other faculty and staff development programs on the campus—Comprehensive faculty development programs must follow orientation to solidify the gains from orientation.

established an international exchange program, and was cited in a national magazine for her expertise. We have observed few signs of serious isolation and low morale among these faculty. Almost all new faculty have sought support and resources based on the encouragement and information provided in orientation.

In retrospect, we believe that the success of our program may have to do with larger issues in higher education. A recent study of faculty job satisfaction and organizational commitment among faculty at four-year public institutions (Cahill, 1993) found unexpectedly low levels of job satisfaction and morale. Unexpected because compared with other occupations, faculty have relatively high levels of control over their work life, and control has long been recognized as a key to job satisfaction. Two factors emerged as possibly explaining this phenomenon: 1) faculty perceived extremely low levels of support by administrators; and 2) although faculty perceived a reasonable level of control over their immediate work environments, they reported low levels of control over the institution as a whole.

At Eastern, we have attempted to design a new faculty orientation program that connects new faculty to the institution in a meaningful way, that links them to sources of administrative support, that demonstrates to them their stake in the institutional mission, and that articulates to them their value to the organization. We hope that as part of a long-term commitment to faculty development, the investment made in a more substantive orientation program will help to retain excellent and diverse faculty members and will assist them in maximizing their talents, both individually and collectively.

Figure 3 summarizes what program planners at Eastern consider to be some of the keys factors to consider when designing a new faculty orientation program.

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BOOK REVIEWS

Leadership Skills for Chairs, New Faculty in Liberal Arts Colleges

The following book reviews involve titles of interest to professional development practitioners.

New Faculty

***Good Start: A Guidebook for New Faculty in Liberal Arts Colleges*, by Gerald W. Gibson. Bolton, MA: Anker Publishing Company, Inc., 1992, xiv + 247 pp. $23.95.**

Reviewed by Roger G. Baldwin

Growing concern about the state of the academic profession and the quality of undergraduate education has focused long overdue attention on the way college professors are trained and socialized in the United States. *Good Start: A Guidebook for New Faculty in Liberal Arts Colleges* examines this issue from the perspective of one special type of higher education institution. The book makes a valuable contribution to a growing literature advocating more systematic attention to professors' careers, especially in the important beginning stages.

The fictitious, but perhaps somewhat autobiographical, Adam Newprof (Both he and the author started as chemistry professors and ended up as deans.) serves as a vehicle for following the early career of a professor in a small liberal arts college. The book clearly delineates the distinctive attributes of a career in that specific educational setting and carefully details the issues that should concern a beginning liberal arts college faculty member. The book covers topics from "Getting Selected" to "Promotion and Tenure" and even addresses how a faculty member can "stay good" after surmounting the hurdles of the early academic career. *Getting Started* gives thoughtful and thorough guidance on such subjects as the liberal arts tradition, getting oriented to one's institution, and the complexities of the academic triumvirate: teaching, research, and service.

Although the book provides much concrete, nuts-and-bolts advice to the novice academic, this is more than a simple "how to" volume. It synthesizes much valuable theory and research on the academic profession that is not readily accessible to most college teachers. Particularly enlightening are the sections on "the faculty personality," coping with stress, time management, and

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the common phases of academic life. This type of information provides the reader with a framework for understanding how the faculty career evolves and a basis for planning a fulfilling professional life. The book's primary strength is the seasoned, clear, and very practical counsel it gives on building a career as a liberal arts college professor.

The saga of Adam Newprof the author weaves to recount the experiences of a typical new college professor is somewhat less successful, however. Newprof, Gary Goodstart, and the other fictional characters who appear throughout the book seem rather contrived, and the problem-based scenarios the author describes are excessively detailed, quite similar to the work of Charles Dickens in their elaborate description. This mode of writing may be appropriate for classic literature, but it seems out of place in a book written for busy new professors who need clear, concise suggestions on how to lay a firm foundation for a successful academic career.

Good Start will be most useful to aspiring and novice academics if it is employed in the proper way. Unlike McKeachie's *Teaching Tips*, for example, it is probably not best used primarily as a reference book that can be pulled off a shelf for rapid assistance whenever a particular professional problem arises. Instead, *Good Start* should be most valuable within the context of a seminar for aspiring college teachers or as part of an extended orientation program for new faculty members. The book examines issues too intricately for the hurried new professor who wants some quick guidance on preparing a syllabus or leading a discussion. *Good Start* offers a comprehensive look at the complex elements of the early phase of academic life. To reap full benefit from the book, the reader needs time to contemplate its lessons and relate them to his or her own evolving career. *Good Start* encourages the type of personal reflection and thoughtful planning that is too rare in academic life in the 1990s. For this reason, the book can also offer valuable insights to veteran professors. Regrettably, they did not have the benefit of such a rich resource when they began their careers in higher education.

Roger Baldwin is Associate Professor of Higher Education and Coordinator of the Higher Education Program at The College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, Virginia.

Department Chairs

***Leadership Skills for Department Chairs*, by Walter H. Gmelch and Val D. Miskin. Bolton, MA: Anker Publishing Company, Inc., xx + 197 pp.**

Reviewed by John W. Creswell

With numerous book doting the landscape of literature about chairing an academic department in recent years, this book by Gmelch and Miskin adds a more practical, accessible guide than others on the market. It reminds me of ideas forwarded by my current chair who recently announced her retirement from the position. To entice faculty to apply for the chairpersonship, she spent an entire faculty meeting clarifying the important duties and responsibilities in which she has engaged during the last five years. She followed this meeting by issuing a brief, written job description about the chair position. I was immediately reminded of both the strengths and weaknesses of the Gmelch and Miskin book.

In eight chapters they succinctly capture the tasks, roles, and activities of chairs, essential information for individuals aspiring to the chair position. Their list of four roles typically engaged by chairs (i.e, leader, scholar, faculty developer, and manager) were roles also mentioned by my chair. Gmelch and Miskin's model of transformation from professor to chair would provide a useful framework for faculty who aspire to the position, and the leadership assessment scale would enable faculty to assess their readiness for the demanding duties of academic leadership. Moreover, throughout the book, I felt that the visuals, the practical lists, the exercises, the insightful and provocative chapter on "stress," and the overall conceptualization of the book into three sections—challenges, planning and goal setting, and personal productivity—all added to a level of discourse that individuals in my department would find useful and educational. Moreover, as faculty who must learn the chair role quickly, this book could probably be read in about a half day. Undoubtedly, the authors are well-versed on their subject drawing on practical experiences as well as their own national studies of chair practices. What drawbacks might someone who aspires to leadership in my department find in this book? Some scholars may want greater depth of analysis. Many academics are disinclined to use lists and may want greater explanations as to "why" one, for example, needs to develop an academic team or "why" chairs should take their role seriously when a) they are in the position such a short period of time b) they need not alienate (or challenge) faculty whom they will have to work closely with later after the chair experience or c) when they must sacrifice precious time as teachers or scholars to engage in administrative activities. I thought, too, about females and people of color in my department who might aspire to the chair position. Gmelch and Miskin only briefly mention the diversity issue and yet it looms large in the departmental cultures on many campuses and it is a substantial issue in equity concerns, new hires, reward systems, and so forth.

These concerns aside, however, I found this book to be a useful addition to the literature. It is practical and it incorporates scholarly literature from national surveys of chairs and the literature on management, leadership and organizational studies. It offers a straightforward conceptualization of topics such as roles, team building, departmental planning and goal setting, and personal chair issues such as time demands, conflict issues, stressors in the workplace, and the rewards and frustrations of chairing. For individuals in my department who seek to be a chair it provides a "how-to" guide; for my outgoing chair, it serves as an authoritative reference and reinforces her ideas.

John Creswell is a professor of Educational Psychology in the program area of Quantitative and Qualitative Methods in Education. He has authored two books on academic chairs and is currently preparing a third on community college chairs.

By Lee Cartwright

WHAT IS MORE IMPORTANT?

What is more important —
The financial aid that allows the student to afford college
or the child care that allows the student the time to
attend college?

What is more important —
The Adult Basic Education program that prepares the
student to enter college
or the college success course that prepares the student
to succeed in college?

What is more important —
The Learning Resource Center that provides research
materials and assistance
or the faculty member that assigns the research project?

What is more important —
The computer lab that makes technology available to
instructors and students
or the Course Placement Evaluation that determines
what computer course the student is ready to take?

What is more important —
The cashier who ensures the student's account balance is
accurate
or the housekeeping staff who ensure a clean and
pleasant campus?

What is more important —
The technical skill courses in the student's field of concentration
or the English courses that help the student communicate
with clients?

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What is more important —

The advisor who helps the student select the best courses to take or the secretary who helps the student see the right advisor?

What is *most* important —

The knowledge that each one of us is important, no less and no more than anyone else, to the success of the student.

Lee Cartwright is an instructor at Santa Fe Community College, Santa Fe, NM.

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By Linc. Fisch

The Legacy of Gus Mueller

What a student taught a teacher about the first day of class.

I don't really remember that very first day of class. I was probably nervous and somewhat discombobulated, being a young and very green TF. (In olden days, graduate students in servitude who toiled in the galleys of introductory courses were called teaching fellows, rather than teaching assistants.) I was facing my first college class. I'm sure, however, that I wanted to make a good first impression.

No, I don't remember that first day, nor do I really remember much of that first semester, years and years ago. What I do remember very well, however, is reading the course evaluations that I had the good sense to ask students to complete at term's end. It was *then* that I learned what kind of impression I made on Day One.

In particular, I remember very vividly what one student, Gustave Mueller, said about that first day (Gus chose to sign his name to the evaluation). At the bottom of the form was scrawled this:

> *When you walked into class the first day, took off your coat and tie, and rolled up your sleeves —I knew it was going to be HELL!*

I did not forget what Gus Mueller said, and I hope I never will. Gus taught me in a very dramatic way the importance of the first day of that course and of any course. What had I communicated when I took off my coat and tie, rolled up my sleeves, and went to work on Gus Mueller's first day in College Algebra? That the course was going to be informal? That I had high expectations for students? That the course was going to be hard work? That we were going to battle over the material? That it was going to be hell, in capital letters?

I probably communicated different things to different students. It may not have been what I intended to communicate. I may not have had *any* deliberate intentions at all when I walked into that classroom on the first day. Maybe it was all an accident—I just did what I did, and it happened to turn out a certain way.

I've thought about this a lot over the years. I think about it especially at the beginning of a new year or a new term. I ask myself: What are the most important things that I want to communicate to this new bunch of Gus Muellers; what messages do I want them to receive on the first day? Content? Organization? Atti-

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tude? Responsibility? Evaluation? Details? Broad overviews? Whatever it is, I have only 45 or 50 minutes in which to do it.

Clearly, I can't do it all. At most, I can work on accomplishing three or four objectives, so I have to choose carefully. I have to assess what I can do "live" and what I can do by other means. I have to assess what I must do on the first day and what can be put off until the next, or the next after that. I have to assess what is *really* essential.

To be sure, this will vary somewhat from course to course, and it certainly varies from teacher to teacher. Over the years I have settled on these components:

1. A good measure of course content—well-presented, I hope.
2. Activity to establish rapport with students, particularly things that communicate that students will be treated as individuals.
3. Participation and involvement by as many students as possible.
4. A sense of what the course will be like: organized, perhaps exciting, work, pretty high expectations, student responsibility.

I'm sure that the choice of other teachers would be quite different, but these are what seem to fit me.

Let me start with the last of these, because I usually spend very little time on it. I don't talk about how the course is conducted. I don't explain the evaluation system. I don't relate how many "cuts" a student is entitled to (none, for my courses). Is this neglect of a fundamental responsibility to students, neglect of a procedure that all deans and the ombudsman strongly recommend? Not at all. I do communicate information on these things (and a lot more) through a rather extensive course description. I distribute it at just about the end of the first class; that way, reading it doesn't divert students from attending to other things I program into my initial meeting with them.

I follow up that description with some commentary and elaboration during the first week or so of the course, but I don't spend a lot of time on it on any given day, especially the first. Further, I want students to realize that some things they must gain from reading, rather than from my presentation. Sometimes I even give a five-minute quiz on the syllabus—not graded, of course—to reinforce the importance of this concept.

I communicate organization and planning primarily by example. What I do in class, even on the first day (especially on the first day), reflects that the course is not just "happening." I have a plan and I work toward accomplishing it. But I also allow flexibility to adjust it if learning considerations seem to indicate modifications.

I communicate assignments in writing for two or three weeks in advance so that students *also* can plan their efforts. Even though I have blocked out the course carefully in advance, I don't give assignments for the entire course at the beginning; I want to be able to adjust to circumstances I may discover along the way as the course evolves.

Because I communicate by

means of the course description, the first assignment sheet, and the way I personally function, I don't really devote any extensive time on the the first class day to my organization and planning objective. Nevertheless, I think I get it across quite well.

I begin to establish rapport even *before* the first class begins. Some students always arrive early for class, and I do, too. We chat informally. I begin to check the class list. My having looked over the roster in advance in order to become familiar with names and to work on special pronunciations makes it easier to associate a lot of names with faces even on the first day. I find that it goes quickest with those who sit in the far corners and those with special visual features.If I'm doing well, I can call by name several students in different parts of the room by the time the first class actually begins.

For those who arrive at the bell, it must look like I know everyone right away. I don't, of course, but I work on it diligently over the next few days. It's one of those things that helps students feel that they'll be treated as individuals.

Pre-class conversation with students helps establish an important pattern: that of student response. There are several ways to engage students in casual conversation. One I like to use when possible is reading and responding to T-shirts. It sounds a little crazy, but it works: "Florida—were you a student there or is Florida your home?" "Popo Agie University? You must be from pretty close to Lander, Wyoming, right?" They relax and they respond. Even more importantly, right from the start I engage students in dialogue about course material. The pattern I set the first day—properly reinforced, of course—will persist throughout the term.

It is my content objective that occupies the most time on the first day—over half the class period—and requires the most preparation. I firmly believe that if I can accomplish only one thing in the first class meeting it must be to convey to the students *something of value* about the course. The content portion of my first class is probably my most carefully designed learning segment of the entire course.

Seldom does first day content deal directly with Chapter I, Section 1, of the text. (Often students can handle that on their own, without my mediation.) The material has to be of consequence; it has to be representative of the course. It not only has to captivate students, but it must also engage them in the process of learning—actively and immediately. That's no small order!

In Introductory Statistics, I often bring in the latest poll on political candidates or reports on research that involve statistics. We consider how the inferences are drawn from a sample, whether or not the conclusions are to be believed, and what further information we need to know in order to establish validity. I may conduct an on-the-spot survey in the class and examine the extent to which we can draw inferences from it. Sometimes I get a volunteer group to come forward and in a matter of moments they become data in a rank-order correlation exercise which examines in a very visible way the relationship between height, weight, and other variables [see "Students Become Data—Statistics Comes Alive," *College Teaching,* Vol. 36, No. 4 (Fall 1988), p. 153]. We get a solid feel for the experience of statistics, even though an in-depth treatment of these topics will not come for several weeks.

In Calculus I, I'm likely to program into the first class a consideration of how to approximate the area of a geometric region by breaking it up into smaller regions, approximating their areas, and then summing to get the total area. By finer subdividing, better approximations are obtained, which leads to a general consideration of how variable quantities may approach some fixed value, a "limit." By asking appropriate questions, I can get students to develop the concepts themselves. They find that they are *doing* calculus, not just reading about it. They find that it is not impossibly difficult and that it might even be exciting. This is not likely to be the case if we spend our time on the first day reviewing the definition of "function" and finding limits of simple functions out of context.

On the first day in a graduate course on college teaching, I trigger discussion on expectations communicated on the first day with a short, provocative film of an instructor trying to communicate *his* expectations on the first day of class. We go from there to discover that expectations reflect not only the objectives but also a philosophy of instruction, thereby laying the foundations for the next several seminars.

Certainly, the selection of format and materials for the initial meeting with students is a function of the course, the students, and the instructor's goals. Over the years I have developed activities that have worked for me; other combinations may work better for other instructors. The first day is the optimal time in the course to begin establishing attitudes, patterns, expectations, and rapport. To simply pass out a syllabus, take attendance, give an assignment, and dismiss students is missing a tremendous opportunity.

So, I owe a lot to Gustave Mueller, who taught me that. By virtue of his having a significant influence on my teaching for many years, he would qualify as one of my mentors, even though he was a student at the time, back in those halcyon Wisconsin days. I want to express my appreciation to him for this legacy. Unfortunately, over the years I've lost track of him. Thus, I'm taking this public means of saying, "Thank you, Gus Mueller, wherever you are." Maybe it will put us in touch once again.

Linc. Fisch reflects on some 30 years of teaching and administrative assignments from his home in Lexington, Kentucky. This piece was originally composed about ten years ago, when he was in the midst of a reincarnation as a teacher of undergraduate mathematics.

The Journal of Staff, Program, & Organization Development

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CONTENTS

VOLUME 12, NUMBER 3—WINTER 1995

Collaborative or Cooperative Learning? Complimentary Practices for Instructional Reform 133

By Celeste M. Brody

This article draws distinctions between two of the most popular instructional practices for educational reform—cooperative and collaborative learning. The larger frame, collaborative learning, derives from social constructivism, and provides the rationale for communities of dialogue that support and challenge the creation of knowledge. The research and practice in cooperative learning assists teachers in managing small group work. These compliment each other in working to create instructional contexts that provide students with dialogue across their professions and fields.

A Picture of Outcome-based Clinical Teaching Effectiveness 145

By Kathleen Krichbaum

This process-product study, conducted in a nursing program, explored the relationship between teaching behaviors used by critical care staff nurse preceptors and learning outcomes of baccalaureate students. Certain teaching behaviors were linked with cognitive learning outcomes, others with performance outcomes, providing an empirical description of outcome-based clinical teaching effectiveness.

Reflections Of A New Faculty Member 163

By Ruth L. Scott

The experience of being a new faculty member can be overwhelming. A recent hire reflects on the first two years as a professor and makes recommendations to both new faculty and university administrators for easing the adjustment to an academic career.

Evaluating Staff Development Programs 173

By Cindra Smith & Barbara Beno

The following article is based on the book A Guide to Staff Development Evaluation *published by the Community College League of California and by the National Council on Staff Program and Organizational Development.*

***Book Reviews*—Academic Writing, Teaching Learning, and Education Under Siege** 185

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By Celeste M. Brody

Collaborative or Cooperative Learning? Complimentary Practices for Instructional Reform

This article draws distinctions between two of the most popular instructional practices for educational reform—cooperative and collaborative learning. The larger frame, collaborative learning, derives from social constructivism, and provides the rationale for communities of dialogue that support and challenge the creation of knowledge. The research and practice in cooperative learning assists teachers in managing small group work. These compliment each other in working to create instructional contexts that provide students with dialogue across their professions and fields.

COLLABORATIVE LEARNING has become synonymous with change in the instructional life of higher education in the last few years.[1] There are tensions between two different traditions in the field, namely cooperative learning and collaborative learning, and these differences often cement beliefs about what can or cannot be learned from others at different levels of education—elementary, secondary or higher education. We should not take the distinctions between these two orientations lightly, because the different historical roots of such practices give coherence and structure to instructional practices that can help us evaluate the congruency between our program philosophy and goals.

We have all encountered an aloofness among colleagues toward

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[1] See Ken Bruffee (1993) for an extensive discussion on this subject.

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learning from practices that are used in the lower grades, on the argument that adult learners are different than children, and the nature of our work demands different approaches. This is, of course, true. On the other hand, I work with kindergarten through secondary teachers whose instructional savvy are models for any of us in college. But there, too, the emphasis on management and discipline often inhibits the kind of productive discussion I find in higher education that ought to be taking place among public school teachers—discussions, for example, about the nature and authority of knowledge. This kind of segregation about our conditions and challenges as teachers can derail truly effective efforts at educational reform.

Whether we are scholars or practitioners in community college or graduate programs we know that we share too few conversations about the uncertainties, ambiguities, and moral dilemmas of our teaching, and the organizational challenges we all face. We have deep habits that make it difficult to seek others outside our fields, but we do share a common moral purpose: the impulse to teach students. In this article I will argue that both practices—cooperative *and* collaborative learning—when taken together, offer a systematic approach to instructional reform that many of us are seeking in higher education. By addressing the ideas behind collaborative and cooperative learning teachers, staff developers and administrators, can examine the learning contexts that invite successful strategies for cross-professional dialogue.

I have learned a great deal about cooperative learning in workshops I have conducted for public school teachers, but I also have the particular experience of re-forming our own graduate professional education through a cross-disciplinary "core" program that is predicated on the theories of collaborative learning. The discussions that led us to develop this program also forced us to conceive our teaching differently; it has had subtle yet profound effects upon our organization and our notions of faculty development.[2] Since 1986 Lewis & Clark College has had a core program where students from five graduate programs come together with faculty teaching teams to investigate questions of adult development, ethical practice, and organizational life. It is within this context that we found ourselves engaging in sustained conversations about our common teaching challenges and collaborative learning.

The distinction between cooperative learning and collaborative learning

Cooperative learning and collaborative learning both define learning through joint intellectual effort, but each embodies rich traditions that derive from different epistemological frameworks. Cooperative learning evolved primarily in K-12 schools, but there are active networks of teachers in all fields and institutions of higher education who apply the research and theory of cooperative learning in their settings (Cooper, et. al, 1990). Cooperative learning is a system of team learning that structures groupwork in such a way that it promotes both academic and social outcomes. More than in collaborative learning, the emphasis is on the teacher's role in classroom management, and establishing and assessing social as well as academic goals. The practice of cooperative learning accounts for ways to structure a productive and postive interdependence among students while holding the individual accountable for the outcomes. Cooperative learning has developed a large body of practical instructional strategies to assist teachers to develop students' social skills, and arrange groups of students to achieve cooperation, positive interdependence and improved achievement. Within cooperative learning there are even sharper differences about philosophy, programs and strategies, but it has generally been a management and instructional tool to assist teachers in troubleshooting problems and conducting more effective, achievement-oriented group work.

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[2] This experience is discussed in detail in : *Ethical and Social Issues in Professional Education*, Celeste Brody and James Wallace, eds. Albany, NY: SUNY Press, to be published.

Collaborative learning has a particular epistemological orientation called social constructivism, that distinguishes it from other forms of group work and creates the large frame for assessing the nature and purposes of classroom discourse. It can assist teachers in defining the locus of control as well as their fundamental beliefs about the nature of knowledge and ways of knowing by assessing the value of their questions and activities, their means as well as their ends. On the other hand the research in cooperative learning guides teachers to structure instruction that initiates effective group work and allows it to continue successfully over time.

Collaborative learning, like cooperative learning, resonates with the idea of community, standing on the belief of learning *as* development, with the fundamental purpose of education being to build interpretive communities and learning communities that have a particular responsibility to prepare future colleagues and citizens (Bruffee, 1993; Gabelnick, et. al., 1990). As with cooperative learning, collaborative learning expresses many different small group structures—pairs, triads, and groups of four to six—depending upon the course, the problem at hand, the reason for collaborative talk, the particular group of students, and the size of the class.

Social Constructivism as a Framework for Group Work

Collaborative learning derives from the work of the twentieth century social constructivists such as George Herbert Mead (1934), John Dewey (1930, 1938), Thomas Kuhn (1970), Richard Rorty (1979), and Lev Vygotsky (1978). Jean Piaget's constructivist views also support the idea that students learn complex processes through active engagement in holistic, meaning-centered endeavors, but this constructivism—as that of George Kelly's (1955)—focuses on the individual more than on the social process of knowledge construction (1954). Vygotsky's theories emphasize the critical role of social interaction in learning, telling us that meanings—both personal and social—are socially constructed. Construction of knowledge depends upon rich and varied social encounters that lead learners to success with difficult tasks and promotes thought, and language processes that begin interpersonally and later become intrapersonal. Collaborative learning also has political and educational roots in the democratizing efforts of Kurt Lewin (1948) and Shlomo Sharan (1992), and has feminist proponents who have broadened our understanding of both theory and practice, such as Sandra Harding (1987), Sandra Hollingsworth (1992), Nona Lyons (1990), and Janet Miller (1990).

Constructivism supports three arguments regarding collaborative classroom contexts: 1) knowledge is socially constructed, thus collaborative learning challenges the theory and practice of the status quo; 2) building promising learning communities enlarges the conversations between teachers and students, future professionals and the broader community, and between teachers at all levels; and 3) we must consider the needs and work-life demands of our adult students in higher education.

Contexts for Engaging in the Conversations of Professional Life

In his essay, "Collaborative learning and the 'Conversation of Mankind,'" Ken Bruffee argues that, in its deepest sense, collaborative learning changes the social context in which learning takes place and challenges the theory and practice of traditional classroom teaching. This is because conversation and thought are related both causally and functionally, so the mind is an artifact created by social interaction:

> To the extent that thought is internalized conversation... any effort to understand how we think requires us to understand the nature of conversation; and any effort to understand conversation requires us to understand the nature of community life that generates and maintains conversation. Furthermore, any effort to understand and cultivate in ourselves the kind of thought we value most requires us to understand and cultivate the kinds of community life that establish and maintain conversation that is the origin of that kind of thought. To think well as individuals we must learn to think well collectively, that is, we must learn to converse well. The first steps to learning to think better, therefore, are learning to converse better and learning to establish and maintain the sorts of social context, the sorts of community life, that foster the sorts of conversation members of the community value (1984, p. 638).

This argument has important implications for students and professionals within their normal communities of discourse and across disciplinary lines. Our task as teachers is to engage students in conversation among themselves through writing and reading processes, and through collaborative conversations particularly around problems of ethics and practice. The way our students talk influences the way they will think and write and act with each other in their professional and work communities. Collaborative learning is the general way in which we organize our students to experience and practice the kinds of conversation that we value as professionals and colleagues in intellectual communities. It provides a particular kind of social context for conversation, a special kind of community of peers.

Richard Rorty calls the discourse that marks our own particular areas "'normal discourse' (wherein) a community of knowledgeable peers accepts, and whose work is guided by, the same paradigms and the same code of values and assumptions. It is within this normal discourse, that we learn 'what counts as relevant contribution, what counts as a question, what counts as having a good argument for that answer or a good criticism of it.'" (Rorty, quoted in Bruffee, p. 642-643). We recognize this as the language in each field or academic discipline—linguistics, anthropology, law, teaching, medicine, engineering, or business.

In each field there are communities within communities that have developed their own special discourse, for example, the education of deaf children within teacher preparation, or the education of cultural anthropologists within anthropology. It is this kind of specialized discourse which requires such demanding attention by our students, particularly as it has become more technical, more specific and narrow. Within these communities, collaborative learning is particularly helpful because it allows a group of peers to pool the resources individuals bring with them to the "task of making accessible the normal discourse of the new community they hope to enter." (Bruffee, p. 644). It creates the contexts for students to make sense out of the ideas that teachers are asking them to understand, test, and apply, and it supports their own constructions of knowledge as they negotiate the giving and receiving of help in mastering the particular forms of writing, speaking and thinking which each field requires. Within these purposes our students are participating in communities of knowledgeable peers who maintain and establish knowledge, because they are engaged in a process of learning Bruffee calls "socially justifying belief." To learn is to work collaboratively to establish and maintain knowledge among a community of knowledgeable peers.

Collaborative learning models this process within the classroom and within organizational life. Basically, we learn by explaining to others our way of understanding an idea. We build new knowledge by challenging each others' biases and assumptions, then negotiating together new ways of perceiving, thinking, feeling and expressing these. In this way we recruit each other into the larger, more experienced communities of our professions and disciplines "by assenting to those communities' interests, values, language, and paradigms of perception and thought" (p. 646).

Contexts for Dialogue Across the Different Disciplines

But the significance of collaborative learning for our future colleagues extends even further. It is the more important reason for engaging these social contexts at every opportunity in our students' education: collaborative learning encourages participants to develop theories and ideas of their own which challenge and test the limits of traditional sources of knowledge. Ultimately, we are not just maintaining knowledge, but generating new knowledge, and we want our students to engage in the fundamental responsibility of all communities of discourse—to challenge the authority of knowledge as we traditionally understand it. We have a responsibility as teachers to encourage future colleagues to resist the conservative tendency to maintain the authority of the professional by keeping the normal language of discourse to ourselves. We realize the tension inherent in this responsibility because we derive our authority as teachers from our established knowledge communities, and one of our fundamental responsibilities is to certify that our students are capable of becoming what they aspire to be—peers within our established professional communities.

This last argument stages the case for creating contexts which purposely structure dialogue *across* the academic disciplines and the professions, not just *within* them—as in the core program of our graduate school. In higher education we have typically created cross-disciplinary dialogue through liberal studies or interdisciplinary programs, but these models ought to extend to interdisciplinary *advanced* study and professional preparatory studies as well. Collaborative learning can serve the larger community interest in bridging gaps among knowledge communities and opening them up to change. Collaborative, interdisciplinary studies derive from the need to create communities of discourse where established knowledge can be challenged and changed. Bringing heterogeneous groups of students studying different fields together is a way of recognizing that knowledge is a social artifact that requires us to re-examine the premises of all of our education. Students and faculty alike have the potential to frame questions, and engage in conversations which could lead to significant new understandings about problems which we face in common. Within these contexts we have the responsibility to create openings for change, to leave ourselves as teachers vulnerable to criticism, to embrace those events which stimulate conflict as well as harmony, and to invite our students to engage in probing why this ought or ought not to be the way learning communities function, and what they can learn from this for their lives as professionals.

There is a consequence of collaborative learning relative to authority. As we encourage our students to question traditional sources of knowledge, and as they do this within collaborative circles, they will eventually challenge our authority as teachers. They will point out the contradictions in whether or not we are willing to do what we are asking them to do—construct texts through equal participation as *individuals* in the conversation. In this regard collaborative learning enables us to share a common experience with our students that creates a certain type of reflectivity, a mindfulness about our own knowledge and ways of knowing. These become new invitations to those of us who listen in order to continue the conversations among ourselves, with our students, and alone in the course of our thinking and writing.

Experiencing Community

Social constructivist theory supports the belief that community—both the striving toward and the result of a group of people committed to a common purpose—is the foundation for a successful examination of our work as teachers. Community is the acknowledgment on the part of all involved that we are pursuing a vision that is individually defined but collectively embraced. It is, therefore, not so much an achievement as a course of action that provides the context for developing mutual regard and shared understandings, and a commitment to certain concepts and ideas against which we can stretch and evaluate our growth. In departments and programs within our organizations we achieve community when we strive to create a sense of belonging through vibrant connections based on commonalties in the moral imperatives of our work, the ideals of service and learning, as well as the honest respect for the power of multiple perspectives which comes from embracing and understanding differences. We do not come to a sense of community without both the commitment to it and the actual experience of it. It will only be within consciously constructed choices to build communities that we will be able to surmount our unbridled passion for specialization and higher prestige.

Social constructivism demands that teachers believe community has value in and of itself. For students to participate in community in their education gives them a model for their work life. Adult learners are better community members for having struggled with the issues about how to create community while they are in the experience of trying to live it. Teachers create community within classrooms by developing shared norms; these norms must be focused and reflected upon at each meeting, as they become gauges by which we compare our perceptions about our achievements and our failures. These norms include a commitment to working as a team; a willingness to take responsibility for one's learning and feelings; and a respect for the integrity of the others. Some adults, however, have difficulty shedding their "shoulds and oughts" in a class despite the invitation to assist in creating a collaborative context. Teachers begin by acknowledging that their role is to recruit students into a community; that means taking their learning, their ideas, and their suggestions very seriously. The students' responsibility, in turn, is to let their peers and the instructors know what is on their minds, to engage in a willing suspension of disbelief, and to trust the process, which may seem foreign and uncomfortable at first. If they do this, the group will create a common text from which everyone will learn. Most groups have the resources to wonder honestly and in an inviting manner about dissonant perceptions. On the other hand, students who believe that all members of the class or group feel just as they do, may learn that they are a very small minority, and must then begin to wrestle with their own perceptions against those of the others. Adult learners, when invited, can make connections about the value of this kind of reflection to their lives in unique ways.

The Practice of Collaborative Learning

It is in the making of instructional practice which invites diversity in both process and content, and then requires us as teachers to participate in it along with our students, that we are likely to stumble and even fail. This is precisely the point at which the theories of *cooperative learning* assist in understanding the problems inherent in group work. But without an understanding of the purpose of collaborative talk as it relates to our communities of discourse, cooperative learning can easily become just a tool or technique for bringing people together, one which avoids personal and collective struggles for creating new knowledge. It can be put to use to serve traditional orientations to knowledge and knowing—positing the ideas of others, studying for tests, or producing answers to problems which we alone construct—all of these well and good within the approved limits of the normal discourses in our fields.

I have witnessed the dynamics of students at work from different fields, with different life experiences, ages, and class backgrounds within such groups. Most adult learners, when invited and actively recruited to trust the process, will work patiently with each other to develop a collective, shared language which embraces and transcends their differences. The challenge is to assist the students in capturing the areas of conflict and tension and to hold these up to the light of closer examination. And it is within interdisciplinary, heterogeneous, small, collaborative groups that we offer the possibility of reflecting upon our own embeddedness, whether it be in our fields of study, our own developmental challenges, or other aspects of diversity. Social constructivism does not dictate a particular instructional practice, only the purposes which a pedagogy must serve and a means for evaluating the worth and value of what we are attempting to structure for and with our students.

If we are to find ways out of the human and ethical dilemmas which face us, we must provide collective experiences for our students to live within our classrooms. These must be precisely the kinds of inquiry that we really want them to go about in their professional and personal lives. We have to assist students to create their own collaborative conversations and teach them to re-create those contexts for others. We have a responsibility also to teach them that knowledge is in itself a social artifact. I know how difficult this is for some adult learners to grasp, who do not want teachers to relinquish their "natural authority," and who firmly resist coming to grips with what this idea means for their own learning. Actually, we are less likely to simply fail, as we are to acknowledge how difficult and complex this process is, and how attentive we must be to the process itself, because it is in examining and reflecting on the experience that we will catch insights into how to achieve our purposes.

A Pedagogy for Adult Development

We have the responsibility to consider the developmental needs of our students. The average age of the American undergraduate is now 26; in my own graduate professional school the average student age is 34. We are connected to our students as mutual agents of the public good; they bring their full, complex lives into our programs. We must assist them in understanding the interplay of their human lives upon their work. Adult learners have obvious differences which can provide rich opportunities for learning from one other. These differences become practical tensions within a collaborative learning environment because they cannot be ignored by the instructors or the students. These differences are developmental, representing different phases of meaning-making about self, work, and moral development; different historical perspectives due to the social milieu in which students were raised and came into adulthood; gender, race and ethnic characteristics which allow them to construct different world views; and different real world perspectives, which derive from raising families, working, living and loving different people and experiences.

Collaborative learning creates contexts where students address issues of practice within a community of peers, which mirror the realities they face in their own organizations—how to foster dialogue and team-work across the different professions and disciplines. Organizational life requires people to work cooperatively with different people while serving and interacting with an increasing diverse clientele. I have found graduate students hungry for collaborative models of relationship, but they are often novices at orchestrating team problem-solving. If they are working college or graduate students they may have already been part of a team that brings different perspectives to bear on problems. But the demands for specialized training makes it very demanding for adult students to learn how to talk *across different academic disciplines*, different professional cultures and different languages of experience.

If we are going to reform our programs and institutions, we must provide collective experiences for our students within our classrooms. These ought to be precisely the kinds of inquiry that we want them to conduct in their professional and personal lives. We have to assist students to create their own collaborative conversations and teach them to be able to re-create those contexts for others. They must also realize that knowledge is in itself a social artifact. When they have experienced their collective ability to build new intellectual connections, the products which they create stand as testimony to their experience, and they are more willing to return to the reflections on their own learning. To this end we should encourage our students to question traditional sources of knowledge within collaborative circles, even allowing for an eventual challenge to our authority as teachers. Bringing the framework of collaborative learning together with the practice of cooperative learning will increase our likelihood of succeeding in this.

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By Kathleen Krichbaum

A Picture of Outcome-based Clinical Teaching Effectiveness

This process-product study, conducted in a nursing program, explored the relationship between teaching behaviors used by critical care staff nurse preceptors and learning outcomes of baccalaureate students. Certain teaching behaviors were linked with cognitive learning outcomes, others with performance outcomes, providing an empirical description of outcome-based clinical teaching effectiveness.

THE PURPOSE OF this study was to investigate the relationships between critical care staff nurse preceptors' effectiveness in use of specific teaching behaviors and achievement of specific clinical learning outcomes by their students in a baccalaureate nursing program. The study examines relationships between these two sets of variables after one quarter's learning experience in a hospital critical care clinical practicum in order to identify the dimensions of effective clinical teaching.

Background

Research in teaching over the past two decades has yielded descriptive data about the linkages between specific teacher behaviors and student learning outcomes (Brophy, 1988; Rosenshine & Stevens, 1986). These studies have been conducted chiefly in elementary and secondary traditional classroom settings (Brophy & Good, 1986; Gage & Giaconia, 1981). Results point to a number of specific teacher behaviors which are correlated with student learning. For example, use of learning objectives, effective questioning and answering of questions, giving feedback, and role modeling have been empirically associated with student learning outcomes (Brophy & Good, 1986; Rosenshine & Stevens, 1986). Some studies of the relationships between teacher behaviors and learning outcomes have been conducted in higher education, but these have been chiefly anecdotal in nature (Hobbs, 1988;

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Jacobi, 1988; Sheets & Schwenk, 1989). Studies of clinical teaching done in nursing have been descriptive, generally surveying students and faculty for their opinions of characteristics of effective teachers (Brown, 1981; Mogan & Knox, 1987; Nehring, 1990; Pugh, 1980).

Several process-product investigations in the health professions designed to identify specific teacher behaviors which correlate with student learning outcomes in clinical instruction have produced descriptive findings similar to those in K-12 and higher education (Dinham & Evans, 1989). These studies conducted in professional education are important for several reasons. They lay the foundation for explication of effective clinical teaching by utilizing a method which has been used productively in educational research generally. Further, they are based on descriptions of effective teaching behaviors that are, in fact, ones that seem to be used by teachers as part of the "practical wisdom" of teaching, regardless of context. Investigators have defined teaching in the professions as an interactive process, examining behaviors of both teacher and learner.

Method

Studies of teaching tend to be complex and easily confounded due to a number of variables beyond the control of the investigator (Gage, 1978; Shulman, 1986). Educational researchers, therefore, suggest the use of triangulation, or multiple measures of each variable, in order to ensure validity and reliability (Anderson, Evertson, Brophy, 1979; Evertson, Emmer, Sanford, Clemens, 1983; Soar & Soar, 1979; Webb, Campbell, Schwartz & Sechrest, 1965). Curricular research provides guidelines for the measurement of both process and product in order to assess the relationship between teacher behavior effectiveness and student achievement of learning outcomes (Brophy, 1988; Sheets & Schwenk, 1989; Shulman, 1986). This study assessed the association between process: effectiveness in use of specific teacher behaviors by critical care staff nurse preceptors using multiple measures, and product: baccalaureate nursing students' learning as assessed by two measures of clinical performance.

Subjects

The sample consisted of 36 critical care staff nurse preceptors assigned to supervise the learning of individual nursing students in a critical care practicum. The practicum was conducted in a large midwestern metropolitan area, in 14 hospitals, each with one or more critical care units. Each critical care unit was assigned one or two students. Staff nurses applied to their respective nurse managers for selection as preceptors, and were recommended by those nurse managers based on the staff nurses' expressed interest in teaching, their experience in precepting staff, and their availability during the clinical practicum. The students were assigned to preceptors by an assistant administrator in the school of nursing who placed them in clinical settings according to preference for the type of critical care unit and availability of placements. Students were juniors in an upper division baccalaureate nursing program who had completed three quarters of coursework and medical-surgical clinical practica prior to enrolling in the required critical care course. The critical care experience consisted of a five week didactic course followed by a five week practicum.

Measurement of Teaching Effectiveness

The first variable of interest was the clinical teacher behavior of critical care staff nurse preceptors. Multiple measures and raters were used in order to provide convergent evidence of the validity of the phenomenon being assessed (Webb et al., 1965). The clinical teacher behavior of preceptors was defined by the ratings of their effectiveness in use of 24 specific teacher behaviors identified in the descriptive literature on teacher behavior effectiveness and contained in the two parallel instruments used for rating them, the Clinical Teaching Self Assessment Form (CTSAF), and the Clinical Teaching Observation Form (CTOF, see Figure 2). Both instruments were developed and used by investigators at the University of Minnesota Medical School based on a review of the literature on teacher behavior effectiveness and on clinical teaching in general (Patridge, Harris & Petzel, 1980). These forms were used with the permission of the authors.

Clinical preceptors rated their own teaching effectiveness using the CTSAF. The second rater was the student. Using the CTOF, each student rated his/her individual preceptor's teaching effectiveness on the same 24 behaviors. Teacher behavior effectiveness scores were then derived for each preceptor on each of the 24 teacher behaviors (5 possible points), and on the total instrument (120 possible points). These scores were based on an average of preceptor self-ratings and student ratings of preceptors (Table 1).

The ratings of the two groups (student and preceptor) were analyzed separately using the kappa statistic to determine agreement between raters (Fleiss, 1981). Subgroup ratings, when analyzed separately, indicated no inter-rater agreement. Each group of raters provided different perspectives on teacher behavior effectiveness, thereby validating the appropriateness of combining the ratings to yield one score for analysis. In other analyses, each subgroup set was correlated with student outcomes both separately and as averaged in order to determine clinical teaching effectiveness and to ensure that rater differences were considered (Lunz & Stahl, 1992). It should be noted that weighted teaching effectiveness scores based on self-ratings by preceptors were used throughout the data analysis. These scores reflected a weighted combination of the rating of importance of the teacher behavior indicated by the preceptor, as well as his/her self-assessed effectiveness in use of the behavior. The decision was made to use the preceptors' weighted scores because simple effectiveness ratings (use of the behaviors) correlated with the ratings of importance at .9798. Weighted scores were preferred because they served to indicate the degree to which the behaviors used effectively by preceptors were also perceived by them as important to use.

TABLE 1
Preceptors' Mean Clinical Teacher Behavior Effectiveness Scores Item by Item

Teacher Behaviors Rated	Mean Student Rating* (N=36)	Mean Preceptor Rating* (N=36)	Teacher Behavior Effectiveness Mean
Organization			
Use of objectives	3.778	3.883	3.822
Clarity	4.083	4.194	4.125
Level	4.250	4.483	4.388
Flexibility	4.500	4.672	4.604
Opportunities to observe	4.639	4.722	4.694
Opportunities to practice	4.500	4.739	4.631
Asking Questions			
Quantity	3.972	4.151	4.073
Quality	4.139	4.119	4.119
Manner	4.528	4.473	4.500
Answering Questions			
Openness	4.667	4.656	4.649
Quality	4.472	4.467	4.424
Facilitating Discussion			
Willingness	4.444	4.344	4.356
Quality	4.417	4.372	4.356
Explaining			
Quantity	4.556	4.122	4.254
Quality	4.569	4.350	4.385
Feedback			
Quantity	4.250	4.322	4.274
Quality	4.306	4.522	4.410
Manner	4.556	4.494	4.503
Specificity	4.333	4.422	4.360
Evidence	4.194	4.239	4.205
Timing	4.444	4.350	4.357
Role Modeling	4.528	4.589	4.557
Attitude of Preceptor			
Enthusiasm	4.639	4.628	4.617
Concern for Learner	4.528	4.733	4.661
TOTAL	4.389	4.420	4.388

*Scale: 1 = no effectiveness to 5 = great effectiveness in use of behavior

Measurement of Student Learning

The second variable of interest was student learning outcomes. Learning outcomes were assessed by rating student performance in two ways. Clinical performance (behavior) was assessed by student self-rating and preceptor ratings on the Clinical Evaluation Tool (CET). Cognitive performance (knowledge) was assessed by student performance on the Basic Knowledge Assessment Tool (BKAT). Learning was defined based on these two sources of evidence - clinical performance and knowledge.

Clinical performance was rated using a tool developed by faculty derived from the course objectives and comprised of ten clinical learning descriptors (CET, see Figure 1). Performance on each descriptor was assessed on a Likert-type rating scale of student performance (Bondy, 1983). On this rating scale, students were rated with respect to the amount of supervision required for each level of performance. Scores ranged from five points assigned for independent performance to one point assigned for dependent performance. Reliability of the scale was reported by Bondy in 1984. Content validity on the CET was established by having faculty in the School of Nursing who are expert clinical instructors review its content and approve its use.

Student performance on the ten clinical learning descriptors was assessed by students and their preceptors at the beginning of the practicum and again at the end. The practicum lasted five weeks during a summer session with three, eight-

TABLE 2
Student Performance Gain in Clinical Learning in Critical Care Practicum

Clinical Learning Descriptor of Performance (Clinical Evaluation Tool)	Gain Scores (x)		
	Student Assessed (N = 36)	Preceptor Assessed (N = 36)	Total Gain
Promotes health	.653	.972	.813
Provides safe nursing care	.778	.986	.882
Uses nursing process effectively	.667	.736	.701
Provides rationale for nursing decisions	.542	.806	.674
Incorporates socio-cultural knowledge	.833	.903	.868
Uses creativity	.403	.833	.618
Relates therapeutically with clients	.611	.823	.717
Communicates/collaborates with health team	.807	.875	.840
Acts as client advocate	.903	1.085	.994
Is accountable for own practice	.697	1.111	.904
Average gain per item (x) (5 possible points)	.689	.931	.810
Total Gain Overall (x) (50 possible points)	6.889	9.306	8.097*

*p ≤ .001

hour clinical days per week on a critical care unit. Student assessments and preceptor assessments were summed and averaged to determine score means for each student on each outcome (5 possible points) and as a total score (50 possible points). Gain scores were computed on the difference in assessments done prior to the practicum and at its conclusion (Table 2).

The second instrument used to assess student learning, the BKAT, was developed for use in orientation of critical care nurses by Toth and Ritchey (1984). In a subsequent study, the authors found that the BKAT provided a reliable estimate of learning with baccalaureate students as well (Toth, 1986). The test, which provided a standardized estimate of knowledge with established validity and reliability, was taken by students prior to and following the critical care practicum. The highest possible number of points was 96. Each student's point total was computed; gain scores were determined for each student based on the difference between pre-testing and post-testing. These gain scores were then correlated with (performance) gain scores on the CET in order to determine the relationship between the two measures of learning. Both the BKAT gain scores and the CET gain scores were considered to reflect learning outcomes of the critical care course and were, therefore, examined in relation to assessments of preceptors' teacher behavior effectiveness. Because the sample was smaller than anticipated, data were ranked and correlations calculated using Spearman rho procedures (Howell, 1982).

Results

The Clinical Teaching Assessment instruments provided reliable measures of teacher use of the 24 behaviors by preceptors. Coefficient alpha was computed on the instruments and ranged from .9214 to .9341. The preceptors' Total Teacher Behavior Effectiveness Mean Score reflected achievement of 87.5% of the total possible points. No standards of effectiveness exist in relation to the CTSAF or CTOF (See Figure 2). However, 87.5% achievement of the maximum signifies a relatively high level of functioning in most education settings, if used as a criterion-referenced measure or a norm-referenced measure (Brown, 1976).

Ratings of student learning reflected some disagreement among raters. In pre-clinical ratings, students rated themselves higher than preceptors did both on individual descriptors and on overall estimates of performance on the CET. Following the practicum, students again rated themselves higher than preceptors, but there was less difference in ratings on individual descriptors as well as on the whole tool. Table 2 shows a comparison of student gain scores from both groups of raters on individual descriptors and overall performance on the CET. The mean overall gain in the critical care practicum was 8.097 points (of a possible 50). This gain was found to be significant, (p = .001), when pre and post CET scores were compared using the student t-test.

The other instrument used to assess clinical learning was the BKAT. Twenty-nine (29) of the 36 students took the BKAT at both times it was offered. Mean gain (5.61) was significant ($p=.001$) when analyzed using the student t-test. Pretest scores ranged from 39-77 points (of 96 possible points), and post-test scores ranged from 39-82. The results are comparable to Toth's (1986).

In order to describe clinical teaching effectiveness, correlations were computed between clinical teacher behavior effectiveness and student learning. Correlation coefficients were computed for each measure of teacher behavior effectiveness by each rater in relation to each measure of student learning by each rater. Table 3 depicts significant correlations between combined ratings of preceptors' teaching effectiveness and combined ratings for both types of student learning outcomes. Specific areas of student learning were correlated with ratings of teacher behavior effectiveness, as depicted. Student learning demonstrated by the BKAT gain is significantly related to certain teacher behaviors used by preceptors: use of objectives, providing the opportunities to practice, asking effective questions, providing effective, specific, and timely feedback, providing students with evidence as a basis for feedback, displaying enthusiasm for teaching and concern for the learner's progress. It is not apparently tied to the ability to explain or discuss phenomena.

Student performance on the CET was related to preceptors' use of objectives to clarify and provide flexibility in structuring students' experiences, as well as to the provision of opportunities to observe nurses in practice. Preceptors' ability to ask the appropriate number of questions and the manner of asking questions were also important. In relation to explaining and giving feedback, it appeared that the quantity of communication and the manner in which it was given were more important than the content. Similarly, enthusiasm for teaching and demonstration of concern for the learner were strongly and positively related to overall student learning as measured by clinical performance on the CET.

Discussion

This investigation supports the concept of teacher effectiveness found in other education settings with more or less emphasis on certain behaviors that varied with the type of learning measured. Critical care staff nurse preceptors were observed to use all 24 of the defined teaching behaviors and were rated as having varying degrees of effectiveness in that use. Generally preceptors were rated as effective clinical teachers, evidenced in self as well as in student ratings.

Performance and knowledge correlations with individual teacher behaviors reflected the importance of different behaviors associated with different outcomes (See Table 3). Some behaviors were more strongly associated with cognitive gain while some were more important in relation to changes in student behavior on clinical performance measures. One might expect cognitive gain (scores on the BKAT) to be associated with "explaining" behavior by preceptors; that is, with providing good answers to questions and/or with stimulating lively, interesting discussions. This, in fact, was not the case. Gain on the standardized test was correlated with preceptors' "use of objectives" in planning the clinical practicum, with the "timing" of and "providing of clear perform-

TABLE 3
Correlation Coefficients Between Preceptors' Teaching Behaviors and Students' Clinical Learning Outcomes

	Student Learning Outcomes	
Preceptor Teaching Behaviors Rated (N = 36)	**Clinical Evaluation Tool Gain Scores (N = 36)**	**BKAT Gain Scores (N = 29)**
Organization		
Use of objectives	.2965**	.3709**
Clarity	.3338**	
Level		
Flexibility	.3977**	
Opportunities to observe	.3065**	
Opportunities to practice		.2731*
Asking Questions		
Quantity	.2874**	
Quality		.2783**
Manner	.2641*	
Answering Questions		
Openness		
Quality		
Facilitating Discussion		
Willingness		
Quality		
Explaining		
Quantity	.2220*	
Quality		
Feedback		
Quantity	.2270*	
Quality		.2305*
Manner	.2798**	
Specificity		.2368*
Evidence		.3749*
Timing		.3138*
Role Modeling		
Attitude of Preceptor		
Enthusiasm	.3247**	.3297**
Concern for learner	.2960*	.2553**

*p ≤ .10, **p ≤ .05

ance-related feedback" to students and with the preceptor's "attitude". Also associated with BKAT gain were the preceptor's ability to, "ask good questions," (*not* answer them) and with his/her ability to, "provide specific, meaningful feedback". These findings clearly correspond with findings of studies done in traditional educational settings (Brophy & Good, 1986), as well as studies done to date in education of other professionals (Petzel, Harris & Masler, 1982; Skeff, Campbell & Stratos, 1985; Zimmerman & Westfall, 1988).

A particularly interesting finding is the correlation of BKAT gain scores with the preceptor providing the students with the "opportunity to practice", or actually to provide nursing care for a client in a critical care unit. This point is provocative since "opportunity to practice" is *not* significantly associated with clinical performance gain on the CET as might be expected, leading one to ponder the ways that students really do learn in clinical practica. Until recently, evidence to support the amount of practice time that is optimal has been inconsistent at best (Dinham & Stritter, 1986). Studies in elementary and secondary education have stimulated questions about "time on task" as a variable; some have demonstrated improved achievement scores as a result of increased direct learning time (Medley, 1979; Soar & Soar, 1978, 1979).

Clinical performance gain on the CET is correlated with the preceptor's "flexibility", or the ability to modify expectations based on the learner's level of performance, with "clarity" in providing guidelines for the structure of the practicum, with the "enthusiasm" conveyed, and with the preceptor's providing "opportunities to observe" nurses in action. Also correlated with improvement in students' clinical performance were the preceptor's "use of objectives" in planning student learning activities, his/her "ability to ask an appropriate number of questions in a non-threatening manner", to convey "concern for the learner," to "provide an appropriate amount of feedback in a non-threatening way," and to provide an appropriate "quantity of explanation".

What is striking about the teaching correlates of student clinical performance measures, is the large number of teaching behaviors (3 categories) that speak to the importance of the "quantity of discourse," rather than to the "quality". Perhaps the amount and the manner of discourse means more to a student eager to learn about critical care than the content. If this is true, it would help to explain the importance of "attitude" of the preceptor, one of the measured teaching behaviors which is conveyed in non-verbal as well as verbal ways. Most descriptions of clinical teacher characteristics in nursing emphasize the importance of sound interpersonal skills and a positive attitude (Marriot, 1991; Mogan & Knox, 1987; Nehring, 1990; O'Shea & Parsons, 1979; Pugh, 1983). Furthermore, clinical practica in nursing tend to involve a great deal of time. Perhaps, in this practicum, students learned to appreciate the importance of organization, both for their own provision of care and for their making the best use of time spent with preceptors busy giving care.

This observation is further supported by the correlation of student clinical performance gain with the preceptor providing "opportunities to observe" rather than with "opportunities to practice." Most students say they learn best when permitted to observe a procedure before being asked to perform it (Infante, 1975). There are so many new procedures to be learned in critical care that the objective for the student has been interdependence with the preceptor by the conclusion of the practicum, rather than independence. Care of critically ill clients is complex and

Figure 1

Clinical Evaluation Tool (CET)

University of Minnesota
School of Nursing

Directions: As students progress through the program, it is reasonable to expect that the level of performance in the areas described below will increase. Thus in early practicum courses, student performance ratings would be expected to be at lower levels of competency than what would be expected for senior practicum courses. See attached standards of student performance. Please place an X next to the level of performance you have observed for this student.

Clinical Learning Descriptors

1. Promotes health regardless of client condition
   _____Independent
   _____Supervised
   _____Assisted
   _____Marginal
   _____Dependent

2. Provides safe, organized, holistic and effective care, based on a syntheses of knowledge, for clients with a range of health problems.
   _____Independent
   _____Supervised
   _____Assisted
   _____Marginal
   _____Dependent

3. Uses nursing process effectively while caring for client(s) with complex health needs and/or problems.
   _____Independent
   _____Supervised
   _____Assisted
   _____Marginal
   _____Dependent

4. Provides rationale for nursing decisions using relevent knowledge, principles, and theories.
   _____Independent
   _____Supervised
   _____Assisted
   _____Marginal
   _____Dependent

Figure 1 (Continued)

5. Incorporates knowledge of socio-cultural contexts and environments in the provision of nursing care.
_____Independent
_____Supervised
_____Assisted
_____Marginal
_____Dependent

6. Employs creative approaches to unique as well as recurrent client situations.
_____Independent
_____Supervised
_____Assisted
_____Marginal
_____Dependent

7. Relates therapeutically with clients in various health states.
_____Independent
_____Supervised
_____Assisted
_____Marginal
_____Dependent

8. Communicates/collaborates effectively with health team members to ensure quality client care.
_____Independent
_____Supervised
_____Assisted
_____Marginal
_____Dependent

9. Acts as a client advocate.
_____Independent
_____Supervised
_____Assisted
_____Marginal
_____Dependent

10. Is accountable for own nursing practice and professional growth.
_____Independent
_____Supervised
_____Assisted
_____Marginal
_____Dependent

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requires a high level of skill and coordination by the nurse. Perhaps students do learn best in this setting by watching as well as by doing.

The two instruments used to measure student learning offer different perspectives on student learning outcomes. Performance which is assessed by an observer can be an important indicator of learning, but, as such, is subject to the idiosyncrasies of that observer (Lunz & Stahl, 1992). Standardized achievement tests, on the other hand, offer a measure of the results which can be interpreted in light of the performance of a larger population. The BKAT was originally developed for use with practicing nurses, but has subsequently been used with baccalaureate nursing students (Toth, 1986). Cognitive learning as assessed by this tool reflects a different yet important dimension of student learning not assessed directly by the CET, depicted in Figure 1.

Student learning was determined by triangulation of ratings by multiple raters. Use of a standardized test strengthened the measurement of learning. Cronbach and

Furby (1970) discuss the advantages and disadvantages of using gain scores as a measure of learning, and recommend paired t-tests of pretest and post-test scores as an alternative approach to measurement. The use of measures other than gain scores would strengthen the investigation of teacher behavior effectiveness as related to student learning. The CET did appear to measure student learning in this practicum and was a more reliable measure because of its use in combination with Bondy's rating scale (1984) which had established reliability for measuring student performance. The lack of agreement between raters of performance, however, indicates the need to include a third rater of student performance. Faculty ratings, unavailable in this study, would be an excellent source of information.

The fact that the total clinical performance gain on the CET correlates with the same categories of teaching behaviors as a standardized test (BKAT) is encouraging. Although the rating scale on the CET is reliable and valid (Bondy, 1984), the ten clinical behaviors of interest are still being tested in curriculum evaluation studies at the University of Minnesota School of Nursing (Krichbaum, et al., in press). They do, however, meet the criteria as descriptors of clinical outcomes suggested by the National League for Nursing (Litwack, Linc & Bower, 1985). The results of this correlational study suggest the value of repeating the measurement of clinical performance using these two types of behavioral indicators to assess student learning in future investigations.

Using two raters (or groups of raters) to measure the same variables strengthens the validity of the assessment of those variables (Evertson, et al., 1983). Student assessment or self-assessment when used exclusively presents validity and reliability problems (Costin, Greenough & Menges, 1971; Irby et al., 1977). The use of multiple measures, however, presents its own unique set of problems. If agreement among raters exists, validity increases; if disparity occurs, the investigator must decide how best to integrate these disparate sources of information. Thus, the use of "mean" scores to represent reality must be viewed cautiously (Cronbach & Furby, 1970). The CTSAF and CTOF (See Figure 2) have high internal reliability with alphas at .9214 and .9341 respectively. Their use in measuring teaching effectiveness has been demonstrated but requires further testing.

The differences in significant correlations between students' ratings of preceptor teacher behavior effectiveness and student learning and preceptor's self ratings and student learning suggest the need for replication of the study using a third measure of teacher behavior effectiveness. Observation of preceptors' teacher behavior effectiveness by a trained rater would increase reliability of measurement. Continued use of these instruments by all raters is recommended with repeated analysis using cross tabulations and intraclass agreement procedures to ensure reliability. The instruments are clear and easy to use for those interested in assessing teaching effectiveness.

Figure 2

Clinical Teaching Observation Form

Rate the clinical teacher's performance of each behavior from 1 = not effective, 2 = somewhat effective, 3 = effective, 4 = very effective, 5 = exceptionally effective.

Organization, Preparation, Setting of Expectations:

1. Use of objectives: Exhibits evidence that objectives have been used in the planning of activities.
2. Clarity: Provides guidelines concerning goals, learner role, level of learner responsibility, and the structure of the clinical experience.
3. Level: Sets expectations that are appropriate for the level of the learner given the learner's academic and clinical background.
4. Flexibility: Modifies expectations based on learner's level of performance.
5. Opportunities to observe: Provides learner with opportunities to observe nurse-patient interactions and demonstrations by other nurses.
6. Opportunities to practice: Provides learner with opportunities to practice clinical skills.

Asking Questions:

7. Quantity: Asks many questions relevant to the clinical material under discussion.
8. Quality: Asks questions that stimulate problem solving.
9. Manner: Asks questions in a manner that is non-threatening to the learner.

Answering Questions:

10. Openness: Willing to answer all questions; encourages questions from the learner.
11. Quality: Answers questions clearly and completely.

Facilitating Discussion:

12. Willingness: Willing to have discussion; actively promotes discussions.
13. Quality: Involves all participants; maintains atmosphere that encourages expression of different viewpoints.

Explaining:

14. Quantity: Amount of discourse by preceptor is appropriate.
15. Quality: Discourse by preceptor concerning clinical problems, findings, procedures, etc., is logical, succint and comprehensive to the learner.

Feedback:

16. Quantity: Provides an appropriate amount of feedback to the learner given the degree of receptivity of the learner.
17. Quality: Provides feedback that is constructive and helps the learner improve his/her performance.
18. Manner: Provides feedback in a supportive way.
19. Specificity: Provides feedback in a specific manner directed toward the problem area.

20. Evidence: Provides feedback based on observation of learner performance write-ups, records, etc.
21. Timing: Provides feedback at the earliest opportunity after the learner performs the behavior to which the feedback is directed.

Role Modeling:

22. Exhibits the clinical and interpersonal skills that learners expect of nurses.

Attitudes of Preceptor/Instructor:

23. Demonstrates enthusiasm for teaching.
24. Demonstrates concern for learner's progress and problems.

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Results of this analysis offer evidence that the effective clinical teacher possesses most of the characteristics associated with teacher effectiveness in other settings: professional competence, self-confidence, good interpersonal skills, a sense of one's own strengths and weaknesses, and a willingness to discuss what one knows, what one believes and how one practices (Bergman & Gaitskill, 1990; Irby, 1978; Kanitsaki & Sellick, 1989; Karns & Schwab, 1982; Mogan & Knox, 1987; Nehring, 1990; O'Shea & Parsons, 1979; Petzel, et al., 1982; Pugh, 1980; Sheahan, 1981). Generalizeability of findings should be done cautiously, if at all, because of the small sample size and because of the number of variables beyond the control of the investigator (i.e., selection or randomization of preceptors, settings, orientation). Anderson et al. (1991) in a process-product study of medical students, explored the influence of context on student learning and reported setting as a correlate of student performance on an Objective Structural Clinical Examination (OSCE). The critical care units which served as the setting in the study under discussion varied by the size of the units, by type of care provided and by the nature of the client population served. The size of the hospitals used and the missions of those organizations also varied.

Conclusions

Results of this analysis suggest that effectiveness in clinical teaching is similar to effectiveness in other settings. Correlations of teacher behavior effectiveness with two different measures of student learning provide empirical evidence of the kinds of teacher behaviors that clinical teachers should use in order to teach nursing students effectively. Correlates of the cognitive learning measures indicate the teacher behaviors that support the learning of knowledge underlying nursing practice in critical care. On the other hand, correlates of nursing students' clinical performance on the CET measures reflect the importance of those teacher behaviors that foster students' abilities to apply that knowledge in the care of critically ill clients. These findings also have implications for teacher development programs that intend to improve effectiveness of preceptors or mentors. The instruments, particularly the CTSAF and the CTOF, can be used to assess clinical teaching effectiveness in any clinical setting. Empirical evidence from this study points to the need for further investigation of teacher behaviors that relate to different types of student learning outcomes. Clinical teaching is multidimensional, and cannot be explained in simple prescriptions. It is the effective use of a combination of diverse teacher behaviors that has yet to be fully explicated.

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By Ruth L. Scott

Reflections Of A New Faculty Member

The experience of being a new faculty member can be overwhelming. A recent hire reflects on the first two years as a professor and makes recommendations to both new faculty and university administrators for easing the adjustment to an academic career.

RECENT LITERATURE on faculty development at the post-secondary level has paid increased attention to the experiences of new and junior faculty (Boice, 1992a, 1992b; Reynolds, 1992; Whitt, 1991;). Such attention is well-justified, considering the expenditure of time and money required for the selection and hiring of new faculty. These considerations will be even more significant in the coming decade as a large proportion of senior faculty hired in the 1960s and early 1970s prepares to retire and will need to be replaced by recent graduates (Finkelstein & LaCelle-Peterson, 1992).

The majority of studies report the early years of a university career to be extremely stressful and fraught with anxiety and frustration (Boice, 1992a; 1992b; Olsen & Sorcinelli, 1992; Sorcinelli, 1992). The multiple demands placed on new faculty often have a negative effect on non-work life and may also result in deterioration of health among a significant number of new faculty over the first five years of their career (Olsen & Sorcellini, 1992).

Studies on new faculty to date have been based on interviews and questionnaires given to selected groups of new and junior professors. There appear to be few first-hand accounts of the early years in the literature from new hires themselves.

This paper is an attempt to reflect on my recent experiences as a new faculty member and to compare these findings with those described in the literature. In many respects, I have shared the feelings of being pressured and overwhelmed in the academic environment. In general, however, I have found my first two years as a professor to be highly satisfying and energizing. My reflec-

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tions will include a description of features in my academic setting which I believe have aided my transition to university teaching, as well as initiatives of my own to cope with the inevitable sources of stress in the environment of a new faculty member.

Demographics of New and Junior Faculty

New faculty tend to reflect a different demographic profile than in the past. The group is increasingly mature and contains a higher proportion of women than in the past (30-50%). More frequently than ever before, new faculty members are part of dual-career couples, each of whom may be struggling with juggling career and personal matters. Roughly one third of these individuals are in non-tenure track rather than probationary positions (Finkelstein & LaCelle-Peterson, 1992).

My own profile closely resembles the above description. I am a woman employed full-time in a tenure-track probationary position at the rank of assistant professor. My appointment is in a faculty of education at a small university. Although I received my doctorate within the past three years, I had previously worked in the field of education for nearly twenty years as a classroom teacher and language arts consultant. Consistent with the profile above, I am part of a dual-career couple with two school-aged children.

Sources of Stress for New Faculty Members

Studies on the adjustment of new faculty consistently identify certain aspects of the academic environment as contributing to significant anxiety and frustration. These areas include: the need to develop teaching skills; desire for colleagueship; pressures of research; and uncertainty about institutional expectations and resources, particularly those related to review and tenure.

1. Need to develop teaching skills

Teaching appears to be the dominant activity for nearly all new professors during the first year (Fink, 1984). Most complain that the amount of preparation required for lectures comes at the expense of time for research and writing for publication. New faculty typically begin with high ideals for their teaching, trying not just to teach a specific course or subject matter, but also to promote general intellectual growth (Fink, 1984). The predominant teaching style, however, appears to be "facts and principles lecturing" with a focus on content and clear, enthusiastic presentation (Boice, 1991).

When teaching failures occur, as reflected in student evaluations, new faculty tend to be defensive and blame external factors such as poorly-motivated students, heavy teaching loads, invalid rating systems, and large lecture courses with limited opportunities for student feedback (Boice, 1991; Olsen & Sorcinelli, 1992). Boice (1991) also found that the majority of new hires had no plans for improving their teaching and few planned to visit colleagues' classes for tips on teaching. Furthermore, few new faculty received concrete feedback from their departments apart from number ratings.

Personal Reflections on Teaching

Considering that I came to the university environment with considerable experience in elementary and secondary education as well as several years in staff development of teachers, one would expect that the teaching component of the professorial role would be the least stressful for me. Such was certainly not the case. In line with the studies mentioned above, I became overwhelmed by the demands of lecture preparation, marking, and teaching in my first year.

My primary teaching responsibility was the basic teaching methods course for all of the elementary school preservice students enrolled in the college of education. As such, I felt the need to be an exemplary teacher and to model the practices I advocated for classrooms. Since my basic orientation is to child-centred learning involving problem-solving, cooperative learning, and personal expression, I found the lecture hall setting with over one hundred students per class a formidable challenge. Many of the students were conditioned to the lecture style of presentation and found it strange to be moving about the lecture hall, interacting with their peers rather than taking copious notes for examination purposes. The fact that the same lecture had to be repeated five times in two days on campuses forty miles apart added considerably to my exhaustion.

Another source of stress was the highly visible nature of my teaching situation. My course was an umbrella course for the preservice program, and my lecture topics were carried over into curriculum courses and seminars. Because of this, I was required to prepare lecture notes in advance for each faculty member, including the department chair and the dean. With a different topic being covered each week for twenty weeks, the demands of lecture preparation and distribution of notes were considerable. Other faculty also dropped into my lectures frequently in order to link my teaching methods content more effectively with their own contacts with the same students.

In general, my second year as a professor has provided considerable relief from the teaching pressures experienced in the first year. At the suggestion of the department chair, I revised my lecture notes and handouts over the summer and compiled them into a handbook which was made available to all students and faculty at the beginning of the term. This process forced me to be organized in advance and allowed me to examine the content and format of my classes with greater objectivity. As each new topic approaches, I find myself making further refinements, particularly in the instructional strategies used with the students. My notes and handouts are now on a computer disk for easy revision, and a bibliographic database has been an invaluable piece of software for keeping my reading lists current.

I feel I am bringing my lectures more closely in line with the student-centred approaches I advocate by encouraging reflection and using collaborative strategies more effectively. I have also managed to reduce the repetitions of lectures from five to four, with a further reduction to three in the upcoming year. Although this results in larger classes, the collaborative techniques still allow for lively discussions and the reduced lecture time has been allotted for individual or small group consultations with students.

2. Desire for Colleagueship

New faculty tend to come to the role with high expectations for collegiality, particularly those who have recently experienced close support in graduate studies. The literature is consistent, however, in identifying lack of collegial support as one of the primary sources of disillusionment among new faculty (Boice, 1991, 1992b; Olsen & Sorcinelli, 1992; Sands, Parson, & Duane, 1991; Whitt, 1991).

Many new hires find the university community to be fragmented - divided by work-space, time commitments, interests, and age (Whitt, 1991). Lack of social support in deciphering the dynamics of relationships and alignments in the department create a sense of isolation and uncertainty. Few new faculty report a mechanism for discussing teaching, and many find teaching to be a low priority among more senior colleagues (Boice, 1991).

Likewise, there is little reported use of co-teaching or formal mentorship arrangements between new hires and more senior faculty. When mentorship relationships do develop, they are usually voluntary and initiated by one or both parties (Sands et al., 1991).

Dissatisfaction with both support and recognition from colleagues and administrators does not diminish over time, but in fact increases over the first five years (Boice, 1992b; Olsen & Sorcinelli, 1992) . A significant aspect of this finding, however, is the passivity shown by new faculty in taking initiative in interacting with colleagues. Few tend to seek help, advice or mentoring (Sorcinelli, 1992), nor do they seem to see the importance of seeking more involvement as opposed to waiting for it. Instead, most new hires generally suppose that productivity and creativity, achieved largely in private, will be the deciding factors in their success or failure (Boice, 1993).

Personal Reflections On Colleagueship

It is in the area of collegial support that my experiences depart most strongly from the literature on new faculty. In contrast to the sense of isolation commonly experienced by new hires, I have found myself surrounded by support from my colleagues. Although the preservice department itself is known for its positive peer relationships, I believe my adjustment has been eased by a number of tangible mechanisms in place in the institution.

The most significant of these is the Centre On Collaborative Research. This is a group of approximately twelve female professors who have made a commitment to practise and conduct research on the nature of collaboration. At the time of my appointment the centre was in its infancy and I was invited to join even before arriving on campus. I attended a guest lecture by a visiting feminist scholar, where I was warmly received by the other members of the group and was given home phone numbers to call over the summer if I required any assistance. My new office was located in the midst of five members of the group, all untenured female professors (three of whom have since gained tenure).

In addition to social support, this group also provided valuable information on various facets of university life. Our monthly meetings covered wide-ranging topics, including descriptions of ongoing research projects, planning for collaborative ventures, advice on writing for publication, and presentations on preparing grant applications. The Centre On Collaborative Research has been supported financially and vocally by the Dean of Education, and is making valuable inroads into surrounding school districts where members engage in collaborative research with school personnel.

A second source of collegial support came more directly from one member of the collaborative group who was linked with me by the department chair as a teaching partner for a seminar/counselling group. We worked closely throughout the first year supervising a group of twenty-six student teachers in the field and meeting with them on a weekly basis.

This relationship evolved into an informal mentorship arrangement. My partner was extremely helpful in acquainting me with both the written and unwritten rules and expectations of the university as well as personal dynamics at work in the department. Since our offices were next to one another, we often engaged in informal but highly valuable conversations about the nature of academic life.

I would also maintain that personal factors have influenced my comfort level with colleagues. I was fortunate to have read Boice's book, *The New Faculty Member* (1991), prior to joining the university, and was therefore aware of potential problems of isolation. I determined to take advantage of all offers of assistance and to make myself visible among faculty. My teaching partner commented on my efforts to remember the names of colleagues and to introduce myself to people I did not know. Although it would have meant less commuting, I turned down an offer to move my office to a satellite campus nearer my home in my second year, not wishing to miss opportunities for connecting with colleagues on the main campus.

3. Pressures of Research

Studies of new faculty highlight the stresses imposed by the need to engage in research activities leading to scholarly publication (Boice, 1993; Jarvis, 1992; Olsen & Sorcinelli, 1992). Because of the heavy demands of teaching and other aspects of the professorial role, most new faculty are dissatisfied with their publication records in the early years.

Effective habits, including daily time set aside for writing, are often not established and can set the tone for the balance of the faculty member's academic career (Boice, 1991, 1992b; Jarvis, 1992;). Furthermore, the isolation commonly experienced by new faculty can aggravate the problem of publication since there is a strong link between collegiality and research productivity (Jarvis, 1992).

Personal Reflections on Research and Publication

When I accepted my current appointment, I looked forward to finally having the time to devote to academic writing. In my previous role in the school system, writing for publication was considered an extracurricular activity which could not be engaged in during "working hours". Nevertheless, I managed on weekends and early each morning to write in my field of spelling. Over a period of several years, I completed my doctoral thesis as well as several texts, professional books and articles for teachers. How wonderful, I thought, to have writing as an expectation of my job!

In reality, writing for publication has been an ongoing concern, particularly as application for tenure approaches. Even though I had been forewarned through Boice's book, *The New Faculty Member* (1992), I became immersed in the immediate needs of lecture preparation, student supervision, committee work, and simply adjusting to the university environment. I maintained my daily writing schedule, but found myself sacrificing scholarly work for the tasks indicated above.

I have found that it takes at least a full academic year to appreciate the rhythms of university life - the periods in which teaching and supervision are most intense, and those in which research and writing can be given a greater focus. It is also necessary to realize that one's schedule can always be filled by activities relevant to the role, and that writing can easily be put aside indefinitely.

Apart from issues of time management, I have found that the mechanics of writing for publication in an academic environment are daunting. Determining the appropriate journals for one's work, adopting the "voice" and conventions pertinent to those sources, sending out manuscripts, working on multiple projects at any one time—these are just a few of the complex requirements for academic writing. Add to these the need to deal with the blunt assessment of one's work by peer reviewers at a stage when one is already feeling vulnerable and uncertain, and it is little wonder that pressures to publish are a source of great anxiety.

I find, however, that I am gradually returning to greater productivity as a writer. I discovered that many research projects could be generated from my own setting once I began to think of each contact and presentation as a potential publication source. I also found small grants were available to cover many of the time-consuming aspects of data analysis which I had personally handled as a graduate student.

I am also capitalizing on the potential of technology to increase both the efficiency and breadth of my research. I enrolled in several short inservice sessions offered to faculty on the use of current software for word processing as well as e-mail and Internet. The bibliographic database software mentioned previously (Endnote Plus) has allowed me to build a comprehensive reference list which can be used to create customized bibliographies in several styles. I have also invested in a laptop computer, fax machine, and a modem to access Internet and e-mail from my home.

In short, I am trying to follow the advice of a colleague who said it is better to be known as a disciplined, organized writer who is very productive and can set priorities than someone who takes on too much and can't handle it all.

4. Uncertainty about Institutional Expectations and Resources

In addition to multiple pressures of teaching, publishing, and other duties, many new faculty find that the institution's specific expectations for retention and tenure are not clearly defined (Whitt, 1991). A common complaint among new faculty is that they are expected to "hit the ground running" but are not given specific assistance, resources, or direction to help them get off to a good start (Whitt, 1991). Whitt also found that, while administrators claimed to be supportive, at the same time they expected new faculty to already know a great deal about being a faculty member, to be experienced researchers and teachers, to have values and goals consistent with their new institution, and to possess appropriate work habits.

Personal Reflections on Expectations and Resources

I have found that the university environment is a unique culture. On the one hand, it demands great accountability in terms of productivity, yet provides very little monitoring of actions on a daily basis. This freedom to find one's own way is both stimulating and unnerving. I enjoy the flexibility to set my own schedule and to undertake my own initiatives, yet I sometimes recall the comfort of a manager's letter with its clearly defined goals, action plans and timelines.

I was definitely expected to "hit the ground running" by the department chair and the dean. I was given a full teaching and supervision load, was expected to teach on two campuses, be a member of department committees, serve the surrounding school boards in various capacities, and, of course, publish scholarly work.

Resources were, however, available to give me assistance. Staff from the Instructional Development Office at the university made themselves available for any support related to instructional issues. Their program of linking junior faculty with more experienced mentors was one which I utilized. My request was not related to instruction but to the university's expectations for tenure. I was introduced to a full professor from another faculty in the university who gave me valuable advice regarding the importance of publishing and the need to set priorities.

The administration has also been quite responsive to specific requests for support. These measures have included funding for computer links, timetabling adjustments, improved classroom conditions, marking assistance, and computer software. Although besieged by cutbacks, the dean has made it a priority to maintain financial support for research.

In general, I have found the university environment to be extremely complex. The dynamics of departmental roles can be particularly difficult to decipher, especially the function of the department chair. Although elected by peers, this role has some degree of authority conferred upon it. The power is not the same, however, as a line position in most employment situations. It took me some time to realize that I could negotiate with the department chair and was expected to present my case in a direct, collegial manner. The chair has alternately served as a resource link, an institutional representative, a colleague, and an evaluator (Wheeler, 1992).

Suggestions for the Development of Pretenure Faculty

Both new faculty and university administrators need to understand that a successful academic career does not just happen. It requires careful planning, honest reflection, and patient monitoring. All parties should be aware of the overwhelming evidence that the academic environment presents unique challenges to new faculty.

The following suggestions, based on personal experience, may assist new faculty in adjusting to some of these challenges:

1. ***Take control of your career from the first day.*** Develop informal networks of experienced colleagues who can help you to decipher the unwritten rules and dynamics of the institution. Capitalize on the fact that your search committee has a vested interest in the success of your career.

2. ***Find out as much as possible about the institution's expectations for review and tenure.*** Do

not wait until the fourth year to do this. Set goals for yourself, and determine the resources you will need to accomplish these objectives. Communicate these needs to the administration, and be willing to explore a variety of channels for appropriate funding and personnel.

3. ***Develop effective time management skills.*** Set priorities and do not assume it is necessary to volunteer for every committee or task. Maximize your efficiency through the use of technology. It is worth the time to learn a new piece of software if it will handle "busy work" for you. In a similar fashion, take advantage of any resources for secretarial support, marking assistance, and research.

4. ***Monitor your own progress.*** Keep a reflective diary or journal in which you record your thoughts and experiences as a faculty member. You will probably be surprised to note your gradual adjustment to the role and the key events in your early career. Keep a file for any documentation relevant to review and tenure. This may include obvious items such as student evaluations, but also pertinent letters of support, notes of thanks, news clippings, and so forth.

5. ***Above all, be prepared to be overwhelmed initially in the academic environment.*** Realize from the literature that this is a normal occurrence, and do not add to the inevitable stresses by expecting a level of comfort too quickly. Remember that you are in the first years of what you expect will be a long and satisfying career.

While new faculty need to be prepared for the academic world as it currently exists, the university community should seriously examine the literature on new faculty and be prepared to improve the culture for new hires. The consistent problems of lack of collegiality, pressures of multiple demands, overemphasis on scholarly publication at the expense of teaching, and superficial monitoring of progress should be addressed on every campus. Specific suggestions and models are well-documented in the literature (Austin, 1991, 1992; Boice, 1992a, 1992b, 1993; Fink, 1992; Sorcinelli, 1992; Whitt, 1991).

Whitt (1991) summarizes the needs of new faculty most succinctly: "New faculty want to 'hit the ground running' and even expect to have to clear some hurdles, but they need clearer directions about the track, more consistent information about the events in which they are running, and a much louder cheering section" (p.35).

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By Cindra Smith & Barbara Beno

Evaluating Staff Development Programs

The following article is based on the book A Guide to Staff Development Evaluation *published by the Community College League of California and by the National Council on Staff Program and Organizational Development.*

IN THE EIGHTIES, U.S. business and industry spent about 1.4% of their payroll on formal training and development (ASTD, 1994). In 1992, California community college expenditures for staff development were approximately $28 million, or 1.1% of total salaries and benefits (CCC Chancellor's Office, 1994). Funding will continue or increase only if staff development programs are effective in meeting the needs.

What are the needs? In general, the following trends drive staff development programs:

- Changing state and student demographics pose new challenges for colleges. Staff and faculty must improve their ability to teach a more diverse student body. Adult learning styles often require different teaching strategies and institutional programs.
- Many community college faculty and staff have been in their positions for twenty or more years, and a significant number are retiring each year. New faculty need training, and older faculty may need to upgrade their skills.
- The use of computers, distance learning, and other technology is expanding rapidly. Faculty and staff need to learn how to use new technologies to enhance the students' learning opportunities.
- Changing institutional structures and decision-making processes require faculty and staff to develop new skills and knowledge in order to engage effectively in shared governance at their institutions.

The nation is also undergoing an educational reform movement characterized by public scrutiny and dissatisfaction, restricted revenues at the state level and demands for greater accountability. Legislatures and communities want to know whether staff development expenditures actually improve student learning. Colleges, driven by a vari-

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ety of external pressures such as accreditation and accountability, as well as internal pressures such as limited funding, want to know the returns for dollars spent on staff development. In short, evaluation of staff development programs is more important than ever before.

Generally, evaluation serves two broad purposes. Colleges measure the effectiveness of development activities in order to justify expenditures, and use the evaluation results to continually upgrade staff development programs and institutional performance. Staff development is conducted to accomplish goals in two general areas: *individual professional development* which enhances the expertise and effectiveness of faculty, support staff, administrators and trustees, and *organizational development* which improves the environment, functioning, and effectiveness of the institution and the success of its students.

This article discusses four *levels* of evaluation based on Kirkpatrick's model of evaluating training (ASTD, 1986):

1. How did participants react to the development activity?
2. What did they learn?
3. What changes did they make in their behavior and attitudes?
4. What were the effects of the changes that result from the training on students and the organization?

The four levels are somewhat cumulative — evaluation at higher levels depends on having information from lower levels. All levels provide important information for both internal assessment of the quality of staff development programs as well as external accountability for funds spent. Most evaluations focus on the first and second levels, where information is easiest to obtain. However, it is at the third and fourth levels of evaluation that more meaningful information about the impact of staff development activities on the college's effectiveness can be found.

Setting the Stage Through Planning

It is best to plan for strategies for evaluation of staff development activities during the early stages of planning activities. Too frequently, staff development activities are "one shot" events lacking links to individual or institutional development goals, and there is only limited evaluation of the activity's usefulness.

Planning for evaluation focuses thinking on *outcomes*. Thinking about evaluation inevitably stimulates greater articulation of the goals or purposes for staff development activities, and always improves the design of the staff development program or activity.

Asking about outcomes raises the question of needs and assessment of the current status of the institution and staff. Development officers typically use a number of information sources to determine the possible overall goals for staff development activities, such as:

- Institutional missions, goals, objectives, and master plans

- Prior staff development evaluation reports
- Accreditation self-study and program review reports and surveys
- Reports from academic senates, college committees, and other employee groups.
- Information about student access, persistence and success
- Information on national and state policy issues and trends that impact the direction of the college
- Student satisfaction and campus climate surveys
- Assessments of individuals' professional development needs or desires

Such documents typically contain rich information about improvements needed in individual skills and expertise, organizational climate and functioning, and institutional directions for the future. As pressures for institutional effectiveness accelerate, a staff development program will be more meaningful if it reflects institutional goals for improvement. Requests for individual development can be prioritized according to their relationship to identified college goals.

If staff development planning asks questions such as: "What would make the college a better college and the staff of the college better prepared to deliver educational services? What should professional development do to contribute to the process of improving institutional quality?", the answers will result in a statement of desired outcomes of the staff development process.

By integrating the planning of both the staff development activities and their evaluation, those doing the planning will ask questions that drive a development plan toward greater effectiveness. They must ask: "How do we know we need to improve? What is the current state of affairs, and how do we measure it?" "What are our goals? How can we describe them in measurable and quantifiable terms?" "Which activities are most likely to lead to measurable progress, and why? How will we measure our progress toward our goals?"

For example, a departmental needs assessment may determine that all courses need to include curriculum that reflects a diverse student body. The key number here is "all"; it sets the desired goal. Progress can be measured by counting the number of courses that change as a result of staff development activities.

Sometimes, however, needs are expressed in terms of general goals with only a vague sense of the current state of affairs. For example, an institution may state that it wants to become more "student centered". In such cases, progress can be measured against such goal statements if they are quantified. (The measure might be: in future climate surveys, 80 percent or more of the students will respond that the institution is, overall, responsive to student needs.)

The following table illustrates conceptual links between goals, needs, staff development activities and evaluation.

Institutional Goal	Staff Development Program Goal/Need	Measurement of Goal	Prof. Development Activity	Measurement of Progress
Students are more aware and tolerant of other cultures	Infuse multicultural issues into coursework; faculty identify a need for training in multi cultural curriculum	course syllabi will include multicultural components	series of faculty workshops on how to design new curricular modules	review of course syllabi, faculty and student reports show increased number with multicultural components.

Levels of Evaluation

Once staff development programs incorporate the idea of evaluation into program planning and design, it is useful to distinguish among four levels of evaluation, as described in the Kirkpatrick model and used in most corporate evaluations of staff training programs. *Level 1 evaluation, participant reaction,* simply measures whether participants' feelings or opinions of the activity were positive. *Level 2, learning,* measures whether participants have gained knowledge or skills through their participation in staff development activities. *Level 3, behavior and attitude change,* measures changes in participants' on-the-job behavior and attitudes due to learning of new skills or knowledge. *Level 4, impact on the institution,* measures the impact of employee behavior and attitude changes on the college's effectiveness in achieving its mission and goals.

The first three levels generally measure what happens at the level of the individual staff member. The fourth level measures organizational effectiveness. Each of these levels of measurement is progressively more complex to do but also more likely to provide more information about whether staff development is in fact improving college operations and student learning. Articulating the desired outcomes of staff development helps define the appropriate level of evaluation.

Level 1: Measures Participant Reaction

What participants think and feel about the program is measured through opinion gathering and analysis. Reaction evaluations are usually conducted immediately after an event or activity and are often called "happy sheets." Measurement devices are usually limited to surveys with simple questions:

- *Was the activity interesting?*
- *Were the presenters well informed and organized?*
- *Were the topics and subjects studied relevant?*
- *Were you re-energized and stimulated by the event (or sabbatical, conference, or course)?*

To the degree that positive feelings enhance actual learning or participation in future development activities, Level 1 measurement is useful for choosing among events or presenters to offer in the future and for assessing the basic quality of a staff development activity. Where the purpose of staff development is primarily to improve morale, a pleasurable experience may be sufficient and Level 1 analysis may used to measure the amount of approval or pleasure for the event. However, it does not yield any real measurement of progress toward improving knowledge, skills, behavior or effectiveness, and is the least useful (if most frequently used) level of evaluation.

Level 2 - Measures Learning

- Participant learning is determined through assessing increases in knowledge or skill. Measurement devices may include pre- and post-tests such as those conducted in classroom assessment. If the staff development needs assessment planning has already determined the pre-activity level of knowledge or skill, only post-activity testing or assessment is needed, and outcome measures may be built into the activity itself. "Grades" and feedback from the presenter may be useful outcome measures. In many cases, participants would be asked what they learned with such questions as:
- *What new information (skills) did you learn during the staff development activity?*
- *In what ways will you incorporate them in performance of your job?*
- *What methods will you use to retain or enhance the new knowledge you've gained?*

The information gained through Level 2 evaluation will help determine whether the staff development activity was an effective means of teaching new information or skills. If the goal of the activity is to teach people new information, then Level 2 analysis may be sufficient to evaluate the staff development activity. Training people to use new technology often has this goal.

Usually, however, staff development programs hope to change not only knowledge and skill, but to have those improvements reflected in behavioral changes on the job. The next level of evaluation is needed to measure behavioral changes.

Level 3 - Measures Behavior and Attitude Change

Changes in participants' on-the-job behavior and/or attitudes due to learning is measured through reports or observations.

A Level 3 evaluation begins to measure the impact of staff development activities on the institution. Measurement tools include self observation and reports, peer reviews, student evaluations, etc., as well as evidence such as the changed course syllabi in the example above. In designing the staff development evaluation, it is important to decide what measures of behavioral change will be used. Some measures are more direct and reliable than others.

- *Ask the participants what changes they have made on the job.*
- *Ask people who work with the employee — supervisors, subordinates, students, colleagues — what changes they have seen.*

- *Directly observe participants to determine what changes have occurred.*
- *Where possible, use work measures (such as use of a new computer program) or accuracy in accomplishing work goals, to determine whether there has been a change.*

If the goal of the staff development activity is to cause behavior or attitude change (or maintenance or affirmation of a high level of performance), Level 3 evaluation will be sufficient. However, the next level of evaluation is necessary to determine whether students are learning more or the organizational functioning has been improved because of staff participation in development activities.

Level 4 - Measures Impact on the Institution and Achievement of College Goals

The impact of behavior and attitude changes on the organization's efficiency and effectiveness are measured through institutional studies or reports about students and programs. There are two categories of questions: one set focuses on the functioning of the institution:

- *Does the organization run more efficiently and effectively?*
- *Is the "climate" of the campus supportive of students and employees?*
- *Do people have sufficient information to do their jobs and be involved in decision making?*

The other set focuses on effectiveness in achieving college goals such as student success:

- *Are students learning what they want and need to learn?*
- *Are students more successful in achieving their educational goals?*
- *Are they completing programs in a reasonable time?*

Level 4 evaluation measures whether staff development activities have contributed to significant changes in the college's performance. This level of measurement is usually conducted as part of a broader institutional effort at self-examination such as a climate survey or a self-study. A staff development officer or committee can use the broad scope surveys and routinely generated institutional data (such as transfer rates, course completion rates, etc.) to establish need areas and measure the impact of staff development activities on the institution.

Since most organizational improvements are incremental, progress at this level may need to be measured over academic terms or even years. Level 4 evaluations provide a "snapshot" of the organization at a particular point in time, a baseline against which progress can be measured. Measures may include such things as changes in the results of organizational climate or other surveys conducted on a periodic basis; improved student retention, persistence, and goal accomplishment rates; reduced complaints from employees and students; improved image in the community; improved diversity of students and employees; and fewer instances of intolerance for differences.

Drawing specific correlations between student outcomes and professional development activities is difficult and is usually subject to influence from other variables such as student motivation and background. However, if clear links are described between student outcomes (Level 4), changes in attitudes or behaviors of participants in an activity (Level 3), and the learning that occurred (Level 2), then conceptual connections may be demonstrated between student outcomes and the activities.

Evaluation Strategies

There are a number of possible strategies for evaluating staff development programs, and institutional research people and other staff skilled in evaluation methods are excellent resources for a staff development program. Most strategies focus on those who participate in activities; however, useful information can also be gathered from those who are not involved (i.e., why not? no funding? no time? no interest? no relevance?). Some strategies are:

- *Participant reports* gather information from participants at various times. Reports may be used to gather information prior to an event about their specific expectations and needs, after an event to gather reaction evaluations, and as follow up at various times throughout the year.
- *Surveys* are commonly used to gather information and opinions from a wide variety of people. They are used as needs assessments and as evaluation tools, and the same document can be modified to use for both, greatly easing both the evaluation and assessment process. Accreditation self studies, campus climate surveys, needs assessments, and other ongoing surveys and evaluations are useful as "benchmarks".
- *Classroom Assessment Techniques* (Cross and Angelo, 1991), designed to quickly and easily assess learning at various points in time during and after a class, may be adapted to evaluate certain staff development activities. Questions might be: What was the most important part of this activity? What was the least important part? What did you learn that might be applied in your job? What unanswered questions do you have?
- *Institutional data.* Most colleges routinely generate term reports on student retention, completion and placement, student and staff diversity, and program efficiency.
- *Focus groups and interviews* are becoming more popular as both needs assessment and evaluation techniques, as a way to gather more in-depth information about program quality and needs.
- *Professional consultants* with expertise in areas to be evaluated can be asked to observe, critique, and provide feedback on certain aspects of the program.
- *Observations* such as those that occur as part of personnel evaluations or program reviews, will indicate changes in behaviors that

may have occurred because of the program.

- *Control groups* may consist of several people from the same job area who do not participate in a professional development activity. Specially designed questionnaires or observations may be conducted to determine if there are differences between those who participated and those who didn't.

The focus of any evaluation strategy is to evaluate the professional development activities and program, *not* the participant in the activity. Staff development evaluations are done to improve the quality of the activities and determine their impact on the institution, not to single out participants.

Easing the Evaluation Task

Staff development officers usually have other job responsibilities as well, and therefore the time and resources for evaluation are often limited. The following suggestions may help those planning an evaluation process:

- Describe in measurable terms the expected outcomes of staff development activities.
- Use assessment and evaluation processes already in place, such as accreditation surveys and program reviews. Delegate specific tasks to committee members.
- Ask for help from college staff members interested in classroom and institutional research. Faculty in many areas are conducting research on the effectiveness of their teaching. Institutional researchers, public information officers, student services staff, and instructional administrators all have an interest in student outcomes, and can be very helpful in providing data and helping evaluate some of the activities.
- Collect only the information needed to make decisions, improve the program, and/or complete any required reports. Focus on: Did the activity do what you and the participants hoped? How do you know?
- Some activities, such as sabbaticals and individual development contracts, require evaluations from all participants; others may be evaluated by a sampling of the participants. A small number of volunteers may be appropriate for some evaluation strategies at higher levels.
- Develop an evaluation timeline, establish priority areas for evaluation, and don't evaluate everything. Pick one type of activity (such as conferences or on-campus workshops) or a theme which directly relates to college goals (such as teaching excellence or improving campus climate) to evaluate each year.
- Identify the expected outcomes in the publicity and informational materials relating to the activity, and incorporate evaluation as an ongoing part of the program. Use the same information to publicize the activity and evaluate it by asking the question, "Did [the expected outcome] happen?" (Also

ask questions regarding unexpected outcomes — those can easily be as important as the hoped-for results).

- Keep only the information necessary to improve decision-making, planning and accountability. Once participant reports are counted, discussed, summarized, or otherwise used, discard them. Leave enough information so that it is clear how conclusions were drawn from evaluations.
- Review the evaluation information as soon as it is gathered.

Evaluation Reports

Well-prepared reports of staff development activities and organizational impacts help create support for the program. Brief reports (1-2 pages) for general distribution which highlight outcomes and any recommended changes are particularly helpful.

Comprehensive reports should provide information from Level 1 to Level 4. They should answer the questions: What did you measure? How did you measure it? What does the information say about the effectiveness of the staff development program? Sample questions to answer for each level are:

Level 1 Evaluation Results

- Are the professional development activities well received and well planned?
- Is the participation level appropriate? What, if anything, needs to change in the publicity and planning for the activities?
- Are people aware of the goals and outcomes for all of the activities?

Level 2 Evaluation Results

- What did participants learn from the activities?
- Was it what they and the program planners hoped they would learn?
- If not, what further activities or formats could enhance that learning?
- If not, was the need or goal articulated clearly?

Level 3 Evaluation Results

- What changes did the participants implement as a result of the learning?
- Were those changes the ones desired by the participants and program planners?
- If not, what needs to be done so that learning is translated into action, if that is the goal?
- If so, do you need to do more of the same for new groups of people, or is the need satisfied?

Level 4 Evaluation Results

- What improvements occurred in students or in the overall functioning of the college as a result of the changes implemented by the participants?
- Are the changes the ones desired by the participants and program planners? If not, what else might be limiting improvements in the organization?

- Are those factors able to be addressed through professional development, or are they beyond the scope of the staff development program?

General Results

- What was the cost effectiveness of the activities?
- Were they the best use of people's time and resources?
- Are the resources allocated to staff development sufficient to achieve the results?
- Do the results justify the resources allocated?
- How can the participation rate be increased?
- Are people aware of the benefit to them and how the activities meet their interests and needs?
- Do the activities, in fact, meet the interests and needs of the college, staff, and trustees?

Reports should be clear, persuasive, and concise. Use charts and graphs where appropriate. Develop a brief format that ties narrative information to institutional goals. Anecdotal evidence or quotes will add interest to a report but are not a substitute for summaries of outcomes. Historical analysis can be useful. For example, what has the participation rate been for the last five years? What has the trend been in funding over the same period? What is the impact on the institution?

Good, continuous evaluation involves constantly asking whether the program is effectively designed to achieve its outcomes and what impact it is having on individual and institutional goals. Good programs continually change to meet changing needs.

Conclusion

As American institutions of higher education undergo rapid change, strong staff development programs are of vital importance to colleges' survival and effectiveness. As student demographics, funding, and public expectations for education change, colleges will need to develop strategies for providing the sustained and high quality professional development necessary to improve teaching and learning. Increasing restrictions on funding for higher education have invoked new commitments to developing the most effective colleges possible. Staff development programs must be based on evaluation, which provides the feedback needed to improve the quality of development activities, as well as clarifies the links between development activities and institutional improvement. A carefully designed staff development and evaluation program can help colleges to achieve excellence.

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The *Guide to Staff Development* may be ordered from the Community College League of California, 2017 O Street, Sacramento, CA 95814 or from NCSPOD, 4 Computer Drive West, Albany, NY 12205. The cost is $15.00.

Cindra Smith is Director of Education Services at the Community College League of California located in Sacramento, CA.; **Barbara Beno** is President of Vista Community College in Berkeley, CA.

BOOK REVIEWS

Academic Writing, Teaching Learning, and Education Under Siege

The following book reviews involve titles of interest to professional development practitioners.

How to Write and Publish

A Guide to Academic Writing, by **Jeffrey A. Cantor. Westport, CT: Praeger Publishers, 1993, 183 pp. $14.95 (paperback).**

Reviewed by Bob Boice

My idea of good reading is a book about writing; I relish accounts of what to write, of how experts cope with politics and gatekeepers. Given this, *A Guide to Academic Writing* did not disappoint me. It is briskly written ("This book is a general guide to help you succeed in academic writing.") It is direct ("Avoid wordiness"). And it is comprehensive (it covers a range from admonitions about how to avoid procrastination to advice on how to self-publish).

Specifically, *Guide* covers what to publish and how to get started (chapter 1), politics (chapter 2), developing manuscripts (chapter 3), writing for scholarly journals (chapter 4 and 5), preparing conference papers (chapter 6), developing grants and contracts (chapter 7), publishing books (chapters 8-10), and marketing writing (chapter 11).

While Cantor's *Guide* often struck me as dry and plodding, it occasionally sounded a note of interest or alarm. For example, I liked his focus on a study about what deans value in publications (the consideration ranked #1 was "refered journal"). But I squirmed at his advice about calling an editor who does not respond "in a reasonable time." (My own studies of editors suggest a caution about phoning gatekeepers in an impatient, demanding manner.) I hoped for but didn't find other, better tips about dealing with editors — such as knowing how to ask for new reviews after an unfair rejection. Too often, in my view, Cantor's advice was routine and unhelpful (e.g., in reference to presenting convention papers: "Avoid talking in a monotone").

Cantor's *Guide*, then, is worth reading. But it doesn't offer enough detail or surprise for the kinds of faculty I work with on writing and publishing. And, its scholarship is outdated; few citations extend be-

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yond the late 1980s. There are no mentions of recent trends in higher education toward broadening scholarship to include teachings (as per Ernest Boyer and Gene Rice). Nor is there much new information about professorial writing. Consider, for instance, George Gopen and Judith Swan's widely influential paper, "The science of science writing" (*American Scientist*, 1990, 78, 550-558). Its nugget idea belongs in any book on academic writing: ..."misplacement of old and new information turns out to be the No. 1 problem in American professional writing today.... Put in the topic position the old information that links backward..."

So when I recommend guidebooks about writing and publishing to colleagues, *A Guide to Academic Publishing* will not be at the top of my list. (Nor will it be at the bottom.) The scope attempted by Cantor might better be met with at least three guidebooks. One is Joseph Molley's *Publish, Don't Perish* (Praeger, 1992). He excels at explaining issues in selecting and working with collaborators; audience analysis (e.g., what to assume they know); making useful notes on readings; structures (e.g. paragraphs are typically unified by a single theme). A second standard is Robert Day's *How to Write and Publish a Scientific Paper* (ISI, 1979), a clever combination of artistic and humanistic knowledge to enhance scientific writing. And the third essential guide is Robert Lucas' *The Grants World Inside Out* (University of Illinois Press, 1992). Lucas writes informatively and entertainingly, better than anyone else, about how to get grants.

In the end, I wished Cantor had tried to do more. With the recent explosion of information about how to succeed in professorial careers, he would have done better for his readers if he had attended more to what other faculty developers have learned and written.

Bob Boice is Professor of Psychology at the State University of New York at Stony Brook, 11794-2500.

Teaching Learning

***The Teaching Learning Enterprise: Miami-Dade Community College's Blueprint for Change*, by Mardee S. Jenrette and Vince Napoli. Foreword by K. Patricia Cross. Afterward by Robert H. McCabe. Boston: Anker Publishing Co., 1994. xiv + 200 pp. $30.95.**

Reviewed by
George B. Vaughan.

In a perfect world, the reviewer of a book would approach the review devoid of any preconceived notions about the volume at hand. In the far-from-perfect world in which book reviews are written, the reviewer brings certain preconceived notions to the task. Lacking perfection, the next best thing this reviewer can do is let the reader know about his preconceived notions.

I have long admired Robert McCabe's leadership of Miami-Dade Community College (M-DCC) and of the college itself; therefore, I have come to expect the college's work to be outstanding. I also expect publications on M-DCC to be somewhat self-aggrandizing. Moreover, having written rather extensively about the community college presidency while serving as a president, I have experienced some difficulty in writing objectively about a field in which I was an active participant. Knowing that the authors of the current volume are similarly involved, I anticipated that they too might experience some difficulty in "stepping back" from their subject and presenting an objective view. I approached the review of Mardee Jenrett and Vince Napoli's *The Teaching Learning Enterprise* well aware of my preconceived notions about M-DCC, its president, and the difficulties faced by authors Jenrett and Napoli.

The authors claim that their book is for all who are interested in improving teaching and learning in higher education. They suggest that we keep it nearby as a ready reference as we proceed to improve teaching and learning. Big claims for a relatively small book (the text is 123 pages, with 73 pages of appendices). How well do the authors back up their claims for their book? Quite well.

The thesis: "The Miami-Dade Teaching Learning Project is the manifestation of one college's commitment to examine its practices, to undertake fundamental reform, and to use all necessary resources in resolving issues of teaching and learning" (p.1). In 1986, prior to initiating the Teaching and Learning Project (TLP) President McCabe suggested that Miami-Dade Community College (M-DCC) faced three major issues: a large number of faculty retirements; the diversification of the student population; and a growing volume of information on adult learning, learning styles, and cultural influences on learning. McCabe's conclusion was that it could not be business as usual for M-DCC. Thus, the seeds for the TLP were planted.

The project had three primary goals, which are described in chapter 1. The comprehensive goal was to improve teaching and learning. The second goal was to make teaching at the college a professionally rewarding career. The third goal was to focus the college's activities and decision-making process on teaching and learning. How did the college move to accomplish these goals?

Chapter 2 is entitled "Getting Started." At this point, the reader realizes why the authors suggest that their book be readily available as a handbook. Although the specific subject of this chapter (and all subsequent chapters) is M-DCC, the advice and examples offered are much broader and should serve any institution endeavoring to bring about institutional change. Indeed, the text of the volume is devoted to institutionalizing change rather than to teaching and learning, as its title implies. Given this distinction—that the authors are describing a process for incorporating change into the institutional culture—one can begin to understand the process by reviewing the chapter titles: "Selecting the Issues" (Chapter 3), "Organizing and Executing" (Chapter 4), "Communicating" (Chapter 5), "Institutionalizing Change" (Chapter 6), "Helping People Change" (Chapter 7), and "Evaluating Outcomes" (Chapter 8). While all of the chapters cover their topics adequately, chapter 4 is the strongest; chapter 6 is the least fully developed chapter. Here, again, remember that the volume is about a process for change. To get a full understanding of the project itself, the reader must go to the 73 pages found in the appendices. Indeed, in order to appreciate how well the authors have documented the process they describe, one would do well to read the appendices before reading the text.

The book is written in a straightforward style. This is quite an accomplishment. The subject easily could have lent itself to the cliches of the educator's trade; which, fortunately for the reader, the authors eschew. The structure serves the topic well. Beginning with chapter 2, the authors begin their discussion with "Notes from the Miami-Dade Diary," followed by a section entitled "Critical Review" and concluding with a section entitled "Discussion."

What are the other strengths of the volume? First, and most importantly, it describes in detail (and extremely well) one of the most important issues facing community colleges today—the institutionalization of change. Moreover, the authors maintain their objectivity (allaying any fears associated with my own preconceived notions). They admit that mistakes were made in implementing and institutionalizing the TLP (no self-aggrandizing here). They are also objective about the role played by McCabe, pointing out that he too make some mistakes during the process.

Considering what the authors set out to do, the book has few weakness. Indeed, I soon forgot my preconceived notions about M-DCC, McCabe, and the authors as I became involved with the book. Some readers, as I did at times, might find the diary entries a bit much. Who cares, for example, if lunch or breakfast were served at this or that meeting? On the other hand, the entries personalized what, on many campuses and in much of the literature, is a very impersonal process.

Jenrette and Napoli's book should be read by anyone who wants to bring about-change in an orderly manner in the complex and diverse organizations that make up American higher education. Before reading the volume, I thought the primary target for the book would be academic leaders, and they are an important audience. After completing it, I believe its primary audience should be presidents. Incidentally, this book leaves little doubt that community college presidents are important to the accomplishments of the institutions they lead. Without the leadership of President McCabe, the TLP would not have come about.

George B. Vaughan is Professor and Associate Director, Academy for Community College Leadership Advancement, Innovation and Modeling, Department of Adult and Community College Education, College of Education and Psychology, North Carolina State University.

Education Under Siege

***Education Still Under Siege*, by Stanley Aronowitz and Henry A. Giroux. Westport, CT: Bergin & Garvey, 1993, 243 pp.**

Reviewed by William G. Tierney

Education Still Under Siege, is a revised edition of the 1985 bestseller that won a variety of awards for best educational research book of the year. The text has eleven chapters that appeared in educational journals in the 1980s, and a new introduction that offers analysis of schooling during the Reagan and Bush years. The authors are two of the more prolific and thoughtful critics of conservative views of education. Their book is a radical critique of a variety of educational topics: literacy, curricular theory, political correctness, technology, multiculturalism and the recent reform efforts; perhaps most importantly, the book is a good introduction to the work of two of the more important educational theorists of the last twenty years.

At the same time, the text is somewhat dense and may prove to be hard reading for the practitioner who wants quick answers; indeed, this book offers few prescriptions or recipes and the authors argue that "quick fixes" are often what create problems because they are atheoretical and void of any philosophical understanding. The book is quite helpful as a primer for those individuals who want an alternative view of educational reform or who want to understand educational theory from a radical perspective. About half of the chapters deal with issues that are broadly defined as educational theory, and the remainder either deal explicitly with issues germane to college and universities, or to elementary and high schools. All of the chapters, however, are worthwhile reading because they deal with large topics that touch the lives of educators at all levels.

Aronowitz and Giroux, for example, suggest that multiculturalism should not simply be a list of canonical readings, but rather, it should be thought of as a way of teaching and learning that de-centers norms and brings into question how knowledge is defined and constructed. Indeed, education itself is not simply a task that equips students with skills for the marketplace, but, rather the primary task of schools and colleges is "to serve as places of critical education in order to create, a public sphere of citizens who are able to exercise power over their own lives and especially over the conditions of knowledge acquisition" (p. 9). By such comments the authors focus their analyses on how educational institutions might be more centrally concerned with democracy and the development of empowerment.

Certain themes—such as empowerment—recur throughout the book. The authors argue that teachers need to be thought of more as "transformative intellectuals" who question norms and instill critical thinking in their students than as technocrats who teach skills. Schools and universities are organizations framed by a "cultural politics" that seeks to assert norms that inevitable silence some individuals and groups to the margins. They assert, for example, that minorities, women, and gays and lesbians are forced to the sidelines as the organization's culture privileges those in power. Because their work is theoretical, they do not provide case studies or interviews to support their ideas, but instead, develop a coherent argument by textual analyses of different standards, rules, and regulations that currently pervade educational systems.

And finally, they attack previous theories of schooling that focused on "reproduction." Such theories painted a portrait of schools as factories that turned out individuals marked for particular jobs. Aronowitz and Giroux argue that such theories are overly deterministic and do not take into account how individuals and groups "resist," and on occasion, change the nature of social relations that are being forced on them. Thus, their idea of resistance is in line with the concept of empowerment that enables individuals and groups to come to terms with the conditions in which they live and how they might change their situation.

Overall, the book is difficult to read if the reader is not acquainted with educational theory, in general, and radical theories of schooling, in particular. As with any revised edition, the text also does not take into account some of the more interesting advances in social theory over the last decade—postmodernism, cultural studies, and the like. Nevertheless, the book is one of the best texts available for the reader who wants to gain insight into the theoretical nature of schooling so that he or she might consider and develop practical alternatives to what many concede is now a widespread crisis in U.S. education.

William G. Tierney is Professor and Director of the Center for Higher Education Policy Studies at the University of Southern California.

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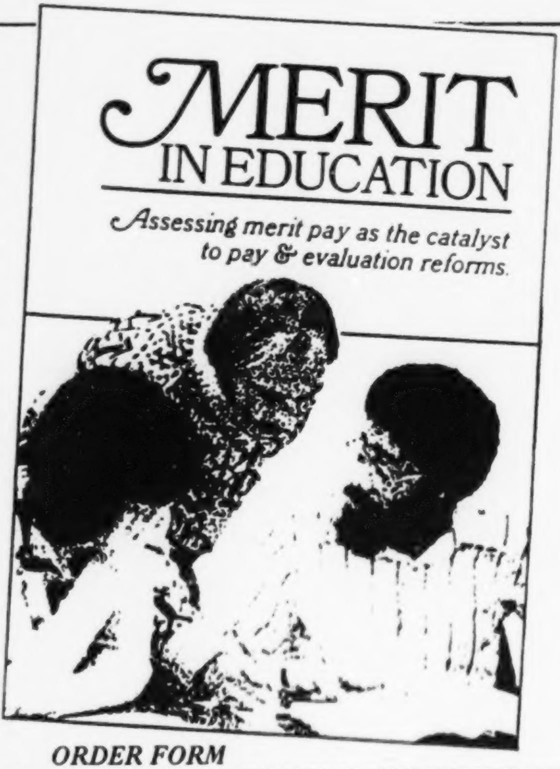
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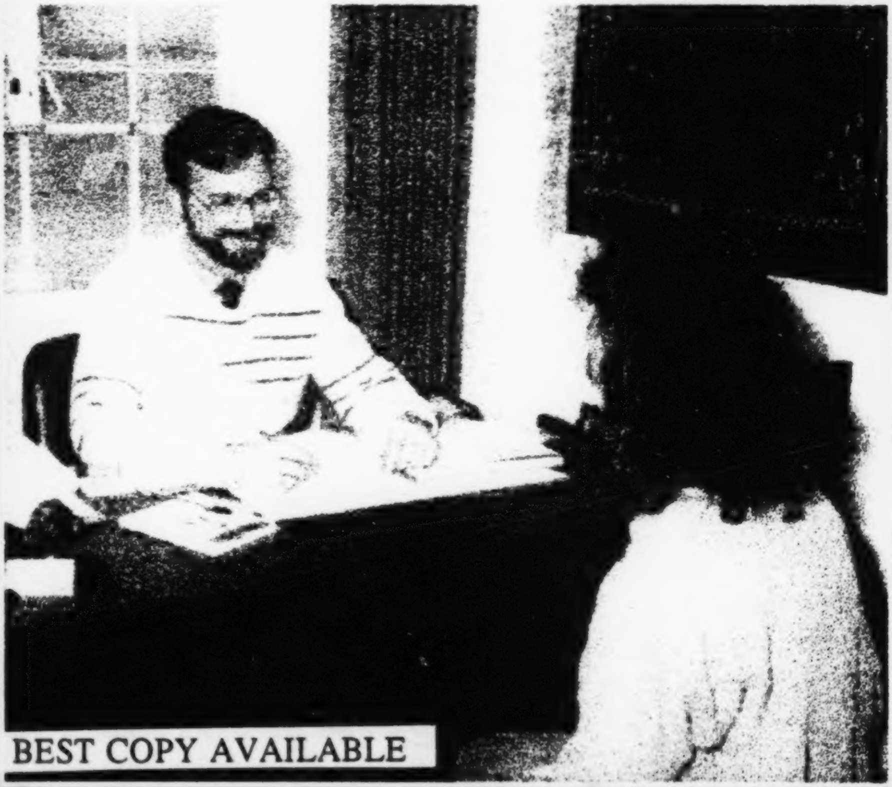

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CONTENTS

VOLUME 12, NUMBER 4—SPRING 1995

Program Review: A Step-by-Step Process for Positive Change 197
By Virginia Foxx, Suzanne Owens, Tom Sappington, & Virginia Hege Tobiassen
A step-by-step process of program review developed and implemented at Mayland Community College has produced positive change and made accountability an operating principle campuswide. Other schools are now successfully using the Mayland model, proving that its equity, simplicity, and flexibility make it appropriate for schools of all sizes.

Teaching is "Job Number One": New Faculty at a Comprehensive University 209
By Virginia Branch
This report presents data from a two-year study of new faculty at a comprehensive university, describes how these faculty were faring as teachers, and compares them with their peers at other institutions.

Revisited: Students' Assessments of Effective Teaching Behaviors and Characteristics 219
By Julie A. Hughes Caplow, Judy M. Wedman & John F. Wedman
There is renewed attention being given to effective teaching and the improvement of instruction. This study examined the characteristics and behaviors that students identify as important to effective teaching. Implications for staff development programs to improve instruction are discussed.

Faculty Perceptions Of Teaching Support Center Activities 229
By Diane H. Jackman & Michael K. Swan
Many Educational reform efforts today recognize the importance of improving college teaching. A multi-level faculty development program at North Dakota State University includes a teaching improvement component. The purpose of this study was to determine the perceived needs of faculty related to teaching activities. Conclusions drawn provided direction for the Teaching Support Center.

The Role of Outside Work in Academic Careers 237

By Mary Pat Mann

We know little about the impact of outside work on faculty, although half of the faculty in this study viewed such experiences as critical to their career development. As careers become more flexible, faculty developers will need to understand and work with a wider variety of career paths for faculty.

Book Reviews—At-Risk Students and Appraisal and Staff Development 249
Chalk Dust—Advice for New Teachers 254

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By Virginia Foxx, Suzanne Owens, Tom Sappington, & Virginia Hege Tobiassen

Program Review: A Step-by-Step Process for Positive Change

A step-by-step process of program review developed and implemented at Mayland Community College has produced positive change and made accountability an operating principle campuswide. Other schools are now successfully using the Mayland model, proving that its equity, simplicity, and flexibility make it appropriate for schools of all sizes.

WAS IT A PROBLEM, or an opportunity? Searching for a sense of the school's future, the president who assumed office at Mayland Community College in 1987 looked to its history. Since its opening in 1971, this rural school in the mountains of western North Carolina had built up from four curriculum programs to 24, with a student population representing some 20 percent of the three-county service area. In the midst of this apparent progress, however, there were no records to indicate success of the programs, no data on community perception of the school and its graduates. There was no *accountability* — a word that suddenly seemed to be whispered on every wind that blew through North Carolina's community colleges.

Those winds, generated by a high pressure system in the General Assembly, were chilling administrators throughout the 58 institutions in the North Carolina community college system. The strong tradition of local autonomy in these schools' operations had always translated into great flexibility in the use of state funds, but now, legislators were beginning to restrict that usage. In return for some of the previous flexibility, which was necessary to meet local needs as they arose, the schools agreed to be held more "accountable." Now a new term was whispered about: *program re-*

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view. But what was it, and how did one do it?

In response to these questions, the Department of Community Colleges funded a consortium of five schools, each of which was to design, test, and revise to its satisfaction its own model for program review. The five schools — Mayland among them — were deliberately selected for their differences so that the models for review would be different as well. These five models were eventually published as *A Guide to Program Review*, a manual now available for use by all the schools in the system.

Thus a problem presented an opportunity, and Mayland was able not only to find direction, but to become a leader in implementing program review. The process developed and applied at Mayland has since been adopted by a number of schools of all sizes because of its simplicity, depth, and flexibility.

Gardner's "Five Frameworks" and the Mayland Model

Consultant Tom Sappington, with the firm Triangle Associates, designed the Mayland program review model to meet the following objectives:

1. To improve the quality of the college's academic offerings.

2. To assess program strengths and weaknesses and to offer recommendations.

3. To facilitate planning, decision making, and budgeting at the local level.

4. To enhance staff awareness and develop competencies in evaluating, planning, and using resources for improved quality.

For Mayland, meeting these objectives required that the usual concept of program review be reexamined in light of the special challenges presented by a small school.

Of the five predominant evaluation frameworks summarized by Gardner (1977), each seemed to have some workable features for Mayland; yet several relied on factors that were unavailable or inappropriate — such as numerical data gathered from records of a large student body — and none appeared to take advantage of the school's special strengths. For this reason, developers of the Mayland process drew on established models only where appropriate. The result is a process blending features of other common frameworks with the human factors so characteristic of small schools, such as the close contact and involvement between students and instructors, and the deep personal commitment of the faculty.

For example, Gardner's first framework, "evaluation as professional judgment," usually relies on the opinion of an outside "expert" hired to conduct the evaluation. For Mayland, to allow the review process to turn on the opinion of one outside professional would be to discount the expertise and personal involvement of faculty, staff, and students, who were accustomed to having a say and willing to invest their time in improving the school. For this reason, Mayland developed a process that calls together "experts" of all stripes — faculty, outside advisors, administrators, and students — to produce a review that benefits as much from commitment as from experience or professional judgment. Gardner's second framework, "evaluation as measurement," and his third, "the assessment of congruence between performance and objectives," both depend on comparing numerical data against some measuring factor — a standardized scale or a predetermined set of objectives. At a school the size of Mayland, with ten or fewer program graduates per year, figures generated by student records hardly constitute an adequate sample. Therefore, while Mayland's model would make use of survey data and other figures, it was designed to lean away from the "measurement" framework's reliance on numbers and toward a feature of the "congruence" framework, that is, "not solely interested in whether or not an objective has been met . . . but in describing performance whatever the level reached and in determining the reasons for success or failure" (Gardner, p. 578). The idea of "describing" rather than simply "measuring" performance suggests a model more verbal than numerical, again taking advantage of the small school's strengths in dialogue and interpersonal relations.

In Gardner's fourth model, "decision-oriented evaluation," a school first defines the decision areas to be examined, then gathers and analyzes relevant information to produce a list of options from which decision makers might select. Appealing to Mayland, and so incorporated into its process, was the idea of continuous collection and exchange of information to keep decision-making up to date. However, rather than determining questions in advance of review, Mayland elected to provide a basic structure for investigation of the program as a whole, then allow decisions to arise out of discoveries made within that freer context.

In this last feature, Mayland's model would most closely resemble Gardner's fifth framework, "goal-free / responsive evaluation." "The intent of goal-free evaluation," Gardner writes, "is to discover and judge actual effects without regard to what the effects were supposed to be." An evaluator might then consider this information in light of "responsive evaluation," which includes "defining issues of importance to constituencies; and describing strengths and weaknesses relative to these issues." (Gardner, p. 583.) Mayland developed a model much in line with this "responsive" framework, particularly in attention to the school's community impact and in the use of a "strengths and weaknesses" format in all reviews.

So began a process that would quickly be accepted — indeed, would eventually become almost second nature — among faculty and staff at Mayland, resulting in significant benefits to each program and to the school at large. Consider the information gathered, the positive changes set in motion, and the communication established in the case below — one step at a time.

The Process

Step I. Identify program to be reviewed, and assemble Program Evaluation Team. A sense of purpose and some excitement pervades the room. The Cosmetology program is up for review, and today is the first meeting of the Program Evaluation Team (PET), an essential component for a thorough and successful review. Talking together, already beginning the important process of generating team spirit, the members enter: the program head; an administrator; a student of the program; a member of the advisory committee; and a professional from another community college. Already seated at a table in the room — next to the secretary, who will be present to take notes at each meeting — is the program evaluator, also a team member. Every PET has members in these categories, chosen for their familiarity with the program and the field. Each one's input is invaluable, for although quantitative analysis is the base on which program review is built, only so much data can be generated by small programs; therefore, the qualitative, subjective analysis offered by team members is vital to each review.

Even before this first meeting, team members have begun the review process. Each complete program review covers five categories of information, and in accordance with the model, team members have already been assigned the following categories of study:

(1) *Program History* — program head, who will consider historical data and faculty opinion.

(2) *Student Knowledge* acquired during the program — student, advisory committee member, and professional from another school, who will study course objectives, evaluation procedures, and competencies taught.

(3) *Student Satisfaction* with the program; (4) *Student Outcomes,* measured through completion of personal objectives, completion of program, employment, and employer satisfaction; and (5) *Organizational Impact,* or the contributions of the program to the college and the community — program evaluator and administrator.

To help team members prepare for the meetings, the program evaluator has already begun compiling information. For the team members evaluating student knowledge, the program evaluator has assembled syllabi, textbooks, and information on student competencies. To determine student satisfaction and outcomes, the evaluator has mailed surveys to graduates of the program, their employers, and the advisory committee members. Forms have also been distributed to students currently in the program, asking them to rate course offerings, list strengths and weaknesses of their program, and comment freely as they wish. The discussion of organizational impact will focus on cost analysis vs. community benefit, as well as trends within the community and the state that might affect the program; information on these questions has likewise been gathered for discussion.

Step 2. In the first meeting, discuss Program History and Student Satisfaction. Fortified with enough of the president's famous strong coffee to sustain them for a two-hour meeting, and provided with a sense of direction by the structure of the program review process, the team members settle down to business. By the end of this meeting, several important facts about the Cosmetology program will be evident. As the process of review directs, these have been discussed in terms of strengths and weaknesses.

Among the strengths listed under Program History are a knowledgeable faculty (all three instructors are licensed cosmetologists, and both full-time instructors are currently pursuing bachelor's degrees in Industrial Education) and a strong record of student success on the State Board of Cosmetologists' examination (99 percent passing rate for program graduates). Among the most significant weaknesses in this area is a lack of funds to provide the program with up-to-date lab equipment.

Under Student Satisfaction, strengths include stable enrollment and high retention rates; strong student satisfaction with instructors; and student perception of a supportive environment. Among the weaknesses noted is significant dissatisfaction with a particular course, Cosmetology Business Practices; student survey forms repeatedly expressed a desire for this course to be more up-to-date, interesting, and relevant.

At this point in the discussion, the program review process invites recommendations to address weaknesses. The following are among those recorded:

1. The needs of the Cosmetology Department — which the program review lists as upgraded styling stations, 32 hydraulic styling chairs, hood hair dryers, a reception desk, an "image machine," and a computer for the students' use — require a greater expenditure than state equipment budgets allow in a single year, and to break up the order over several years will result in mismatched equipment. Therefore, the administration must explore the possibility of being released from state contracts and finding other sources of funding.

2. To enhance Cosmetology Business Practices, the faculty should consider purchasing new instructional materials (specific suggestions are included in the review) and inviting at least two successful shop owners as guest speakers during the quarter. The latter recommendation will not only provide the students with relevant information from a different point of view, but will offer an opportunity for cosmetologists in the community to be involved with the program.

The PET will use the same format — strengths, weaknesses, and recommendations — in the second and third meetings. At the conclusion of the third meeting, the PET will reach a consensus on the profile and direction of the program.

Step 3. In the second meeting, discuss Student Knowledge. This discussion focuses on three questions: (1) What do students need to know in order to be competent in their field? (2) Does Mayland's program provide the opportunity to acquire that knowledge? (3) Are devices in place to measure student success in acquiring knowledge? (Whether and to what extent the knowledge is acquired is the concern of the next area, Student Outcomes.)

In Cosmetology as in other programs leading to board certification, necessary knowledge is defined largely by the content of the board exam, as well as by input from local professionals. After considering textbooks, materials, and equipment, the PET determines (and lists as a strength) that all are "basic and adequate" for providing that knowledge.

However, with further discussion, the PET finds that "basic and adequate" leaves room for a great deal of improvement — especially because the state board exam is antiquated and does not include many current fashions and techniques. As a result, the same materials and equipment earn a place in the Weaknesses column as being outdated and not sufficiently interesting. Another weakness is the failure to make use of popular (but expensive) salon products with which employers want stylists to be familiar. In this regard, the program's tight budget proves a discouraging influence. The PET also finds that book knowledge and even hands-on instruction do not necessarily prepare students to be successful professionals. Surveys of area employers suggest that Mayland's Cosmetology students are insufficiently trained in business practices and time management.

Recommendations include introducing new videos teaching up-to-date techniques as well as business practices for cosmetologists; allowing instructors to choose from different vendors to remain current with changes in styles and products; and a more active role for the program's Advisory Committee, many of whose members are local business owners, in planning presentations that will enhance student professionalism.

The PET finds that there are few formal devices in place for measuring knowledge as students pass through the program. In reviews of other programs, such a lack of formal evaluation has been cited as a weakness. For example, the Secretarial program review noted a need to identify measurable competencies for the whole curriculum. Similarly, the Nursing program review recommended development of a system for students to "check off" on skills before exiting the program. With each review, problems with evaluation of student knowledge have become more evident, and the Cosmetology review will represent a turning point for the school in this regard. However, for now the PET chooses to carry the issue over into the next meeting, in which results of insufficient evaluation will become more apparent.

Step 4. In the third meeting, discuss Student Outcomes and

Organizational Impact. The PET finds strengths in both areas. Students have a 99 percent passing rate on the state boards (Outcomes), and the program generates funds for the school while training both operators and employees in the small business community (Organizational Impact).

However, uncomfortable but undeniable truths are piling up in the Weaknesses column. Surveyed employers in the area rate many of the students' skills at low levels. Perhaps even more disturbing, over 50 percent of the graduates say that if they had another chance to choose a program, they would not choose Cosmetology. Among their dissatisfactions with the program are lack of instruction in day-to-day business practices, lack of variety in instruction, and lack of enthusiasm among the instructors. All in all, the PET finds that neither the community nor the students themselves have a positive image of the Cosmetology program. Clearly, there is a need for change.

The recommendations under Student Outcomes focus on the need for continuously updated instruction, more contact with local salons, and better preparation for students before entering the program (e.g. by encouraging them to observe actual salon operation). However, a larger issue remains to be addressed.

Recognizing that lack of evaluation methods has caused problems for the Cosmetology program, the PET has turned to other program reviews to discover an apparently campuswide weakness. Accordingly, under Organizational Impact, the PET states that every program at Mayland needs to establish intended outcomes for students, and to develop the means for assessing the extent to which these intentions are achieved. The Cosmetology program will be the first to establish intended outcomes, all of which will be directed toward providing a broader understanding of the cosmetology field (no longer restricted to the knowledge measured by an outdated standardized exam) and the business world.

Step 5. Use meeting notebook to create a final report. Throughout the meeting series, the program evaluator has collected into a notebook all the minutes, raw data, survey forms, summarized data, and other relevant information generated by the process. After the final meeting, she uses this information to prepare a report, summarizing the review and listing the strengths, weaknesses, and recommendations in each of the five areas of investigation.

Step 6. Meet to develop follow-up calendar. With the report completed, the program evaluator, program head and administrator meet to develop a follow-up calendar, which lists all recommendations and indicates for each the party responsible and the date by which action should be taken.

In all program reviews, all recommendations, from the smallest practical matters to larger actions that shape the future of a program, find a place on the follow-up calendar. For example, during Mayland's review of its Secretarial program, a practical issue that arose was that the typing classroom had become a dumping ground for obsolete materials. The cluttered shelves and cabinets took up classroom space and detracted from the feeling of professionalism the faculty wanted to instill in their students. This problem was addressed and relieved by a simple directive on the follow-up calendar, indicating that the maintenance supervisor was to remove shelves, cabinets and obsolete materials by a given date.

On the other end of the spectrum, review of Mayland's Nursing program provoked discussion of an issue affecting the entire region (and thus falling under the category of Organizational Impact). While Mayland's one-year Nursing program had trained many area residents for work as licensed practical nurses, registered nurses (RNs) continued in scant supply. Clearly, Mayland could best serve the community by offering a two-year associate degree whose graduates would qualify for board certification as RNs. The program review's follow-up calendar stipulated that the director of nursing and the dean of academic services would conduct a feasibility study for the associate degree program by December 31, 1990. As a result, the two-year program began operation in the Winter Quarter of 1993-94.

Step 7. Publish the report. The school's publications department produces the final report, including the follow-up calendar, in booklet form for distribution to the president, the Board of Trustees, and the state's Department of Community Colleges; copies are also available for any interested personnel.

With the publication of the report, the program review process is perhaps two-thirds complete. Two remaining "steps" are essential to the success of each program review.

Step 8. Follow-up meeting. First, the process must produce change. Without tangible positive results, the best-designed review process is little more than an officially endorsed gripe session resulting in soft support and hard feelings. Mayland's follow-up calendar insures that reviews produce results. As further insurance, the PET meets again six months after the development of that calendar to discuss progress and to revise recommendations if necessary.

Step 9. Maintain good records and open lines of communication. The second essential element is excellent communication. The president, the dean of curriculum, and the department heads must work to keep the lines of communication open at all times. Good record-keeping is part of the communication process, and all departments now maintain up-to-date records including enrollment and retention data, FTE, and course evaluations. All records are available for sharing between departments, which has greatly improved interdepartmental communication and produced other benefits campuswide.

Outcomes

Positive change has been the hallmark of every program review that has so far occurred at Mayland. New positions have been justified and filled. Forty thousand dollars' worth of equipment was purchased to upgrade one department in one year. Two other programs received a total of twenty thousand dollars' worth of storage, shelves and work tables. Courses in some programs have been eliminated, while other programs' offerings are being expanded — adjustments that have helped the programs more closely match student and community needs. Because the determination of such needs is at the heart of the program review process, all reviewed programs are now more in tune with the community they serve and are in a better position to prepare students for employment.

Too many schools have had bad experiences with program review, so that faculty members often perceive an upcoming evaluation as a threat, or at best, something to be survived and then forgotten. At Mayland, however, the conduct of reviews thus far has produced an attitude of acceptance and respect for the evaluations among faculty and staff. Several features of the process contribute to this attitude. First, it involves people at all levels of the program, rather than a group of "outsiders" or an administrative elite. Second, it is characterized by honesty and fairness. Third, it is perceived as a helping process rather than as a series of punitive measures taken against programs that are out of favor.

Because the campus attitude toward program review is positive, the benefits of the review process reach further than the specific improvements to programs. "Accountability" is becoming an operating principle even among programs that have not yet been reviewed, and across campus there is great interest in improving programs, being prepared for review, and focusing on what students are carrying with them as they leave school for their chosen fields of employment. The school appears to be experiencing a general upgrade just by having the program review process in place. Community perception of the school has improved concurrently; enrollment has increased 19 percent since program review began in 1988.

The benefits of this process of program review have reached far beyond Mayland's service area. As it happened, building the process around human factors gave it both structure and flexibility that would make the process adaptable to schools of many types and sizes. Many schools, including one very large public university in another part of the country, are now using the Mayland model with great success.

Status

Mayland's program review process was designed with an eye to simplicity; however, like every other experiment conducted in a real-life laboratory, it has taken on some unexpected shadings and complexities. These complexities are not necessarily unwelcome. They are largely the result of positive change, namely the breakdown of cut-and-dried boundaries between programs as a sense of oneness develops in the college.

Sharing data generated by program reviews has helped the various departments work for common goals. Today, shared data are a significant part of Mayland's process. Quantitative data are collected and considered every quarter. Enrollments, retention, and costs of programs are available for scrutiny. The general health of a program is therefore evident before review begins — an important evolution in the process, since in the earlier years practically nothing was known about any program before review.

When budgetary constraints prevent Mayland from offering certain classes or providing some equipment, sharing data about student needs often reveals areas where cooperation among programs can fill the gaps. Further, faculty members in non-reviewed programs can use shared data to get a sense of their own programs' health, and the college as a whole benefits from the increased self-awareness of all the programs.

The role of program review in budgeting and planning has also contributed to the development of common goals for the college. With shared data, faculty members are able to see how budgeting decisions are tied directly to student needs revealed by the reviews. Data also reveal how improvements in one program benefit all programs through increased enrollment, retention, and FTE. The understanding resulting from these data has reduced competition and promoted cooperation among the programs in budget areas.

Summary

Though Mayland embarked on program review with little experience and less record-keeping in its history, neither shortage proved an obstacle to implementing a successful review process. Mayland's process is appropriate for small, rural schools where commitment to the objectives laid out in the model may be in greater supply than time, experience or money. Indeed, the Mayland process is built specifically on the strengths of small schools, as seen in the use of the Program Evaluation Team, which draws on members' personal involvement, commitment, and experience rather than relying on the kinds of data that larger schools can generate for analysis. However, large schools now successfully using the model have demonstrated that the process can work well at schools of all sizes. The step-by-step structure of the process provides each team member with a clear understanding of his or her responsibilities and furnishes the whole team with a sense of direction, laying out the path toward positive change for the program.

Changes at Mayland resulting from program review include better record-keeping and communication; better distribution of funds; more sensitivity among departments to one another's needs; and a school better attuned to the needs of the community it serves. The positive feelings within the school have produced, in turn, a positive image in the community, with a corresponding increase in enrollment.

In Mayland's application this process of program review has proved truly flexible, allowing for more complexity as needed and easily adaptable to the varying needs of different programs. At the same time, the information brought to light and the understanding fostered by program review have helped personnel of all Mayland's programs to realize that their needs are not so various after all. This realization has promoted greater cooperation among programs and helped to develop a sense of oneness in the school — a true spirit of community within the community college.

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By Virginia Branch

Teaching is "Job Number One": New Faculty at a Comprehensive University

This report presents data from a two-year study of new faculty at a comprehensive university, describes how these faculty were faring as teachers, and compares them with their peers at other institutions.

THE GROWING literature on new faculty suggests that whether they work at a research or comprehensive university, whether they teach one or four courses, new faculty are confronted with similar challenges as they strive to establish themselves as teachers (Boice, 1991a; Boice, 1991b; Boice, 1993; Fink, 1984; Sorcinelli, 1988; Turner & Boice, 1987). These include developing personally satisfying and effective teaching styles, resolving insecurities arising from unclear expectations and inadequate collegial support, and learning to balance the demands of teaching with other aspects of their personal and professional lives. This report describes how new faculty at a comprehensive university are meeting these challenges. It is based on data from a two year study of new faculty which sought, on one level, to discover how well the new faculty were faring as colleagues, teachers, and scholars; and, on another, to augment the literature on faculty career patterns by comparing these faculty with their peers at other institutions.

Methods

Subjects

The subjects in this study were all new faculty hired to fill full-time, tenure-track positions. Thirty-one of 33 new faculty agreed to participate in the study. Of those, 13 had three or more years of full-time teaching experience at other campuses, 17 had taught less than two years since receiving their doctorates, and one was beginning a teaching career after having worked in business. In this report, the new faculty with

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three or more years of experience will be referred to as "experienced"; the others will be grouped together and referred to as "inexperienced."

The new faculty represented a wide range of disciplines from all colleges on campus. Ten of the 18 inexperienced faculty and 2 of the 13 experienced ones were women. One was a person of color. All of the inexperienced new faculty and 8 of those with experience were hired at the assistant professor level. The other five experienced new faculty received the rank of associate professor. No one was hired with tenure.

Interview Protocol

The new faculty in this study were interviewed between September 1990 and April 1992, once during their first semester and once during their second. Each interview lasted approximately one hour. The interview was designed to elicit both qualitative and quantitative data: "How does this campus differ from the others you have been on?" and, "Using a 10-point Likert scale ranging from a low of 1 to a high of 10, rate yourself as a teacher compared to your peers." Despite its structured nature, the interviews tended to be conversational in style and provided the faculty with opportunities to discuss their activities and reflect on their lives in ways they often described as personally valuable.

Data Analysis

Medians and percentages were computed for the quantitative data to determine relative significance and to facilitate comparison. In this report, all ratings are the medians of the responses given by the new faculty in answer to questions requiring the use of the Likert scale. The qualitative data were categorized according to theme and tone to reveal common areas of concern and patterns of behavior.

The data were analyzed from both an intra-institutional and an inter-institutional perspective. Similarities and differences between the responses of inexperienced and experienced faculty and between first and second semester responses were noted. Comparisons were made between the faculty at the university under study and those described in earlier reports (Boice, 1991a; Boice, 1991b; Boice & Turner, 1989; Fink, 1984; Sorcinelli, 1988; Turner & Boice, 1987). In some cases (Boice, 1993; Fink, 1984; Sorcinelli, 1988), such comparisons could only be general in nature given differences in research design. However, since the interview format was essentially the same as one used by Boice (1992a), it was possible to draw specific analogies between the new faculty in some of his samples and those interviewed in this study.

Results & Discussion

Teaching Loads

There was considerable variety in the number of courses each new faculty member taught during his or her first year. Although the standard teaching load is 12 credit hours per semester, the actual number given the new faculty ranged from 5 to 13. The median number of hours assigned both inexperienced and experienced new faculty was 9. Reassigned time, when granted, was usually for specific duties such as supervising student teachers and administering departmental programs. The new faculty's workloads were also affected by such factors as whether or not they were teaching laboratory courses, how many preparations they had, how knowledgeable they were in the subject areas they were teaching, and how many students they had in their classes.

Departments differed widely with respect to what they were able or willing to work out for their new faculty. The size of departments, the average workloads of the senior faculty, the departmental cultures, and especially the attitudes and aptitudes of the chairpeople resulted in significant differences in the new faculty's schedules. One new faculty member said his department attempted to give new people lighter teaching assignments so they would have more time to prepare for their classes. Another objected to having been given four new preparations saying, "I feel they haven't given me any breaks. There is no better way to ruin people's careers than to give them too many new classes."

Table 1 gives the median number of hours that the new faculty estimated they spent per work week on various professional activities during their first and second semesters.

As Table 1 indicates, the new faculty's schedules, especially those of the inexperienced ones, were dominated by teaching and teaching-related activities. The new faculty in this study, like their peers on other campuses (Boice, 1991b; Boice & Turner, 1989; Fink, 1984; Sorcinelli, 1988; Turner & Boice, 1987), expressed concern about this imbalance. A number came to feel disillusioned with their departments and the university: "I feel a sense of betrayal. What I expected in getting here was a better quality of life. I feel deeply frustrated. I spend all my

TABLE 1
Median Faculty Estimates of Number of Hours Spent per Workweek on Professional Activities

	Background of New Faculty	
Academic Activity	Inexperienced 1st sem. — 2nd sem.	Experienced 1st sem. — 2nd sem.
Teaching	9.00 — 9.00	9.00 — 9.00
Lecture preparation	22.00 — 15.00	14.00 — 9.00
Grading	5.00 — 10.50	4.00 — 3.00
Student contact	4.00 — 5.00	6.50 — 6.00
Reading	2.00 — 2.50	3.00 — 4.00
Research	0.75 — 1.50	1.50 — 2.00

time teaching"; "I feel like I'm on my own in the department and in class. I'm so snowed under preparing for class."

Previous research suggests that new faculty who are most well adapted have learned to spend roughly equal and moderate amounts of time each week on teaching, class preparation, research/writing, and collegial interactions (Boice, 1992b). However, many respond to the pressures and anxieties of their new positions by developing counter-productive patterns of behavior, one of the most common being over-preparing for classes at the expense of other activities (Boice, 1991a; Boice, 1991b; Fink, 1984). This was apparent in the present study. During their second semesters, experienced new faculty taught a median of 9 hours and prepared a median of 9 hours, but 36% were spending significantly more time preparing for class—usually over 20 hours per week. The pattern was exaggerated among the inexperienced new faculty: they prepared a median of 15 hours for 9 hours of classes, and 64% were spending more time on preparation than on presentation.

The new faculty in this study, like their peers at other institutions (Boice, 1991b), tended to assume that the accommodations they were making to their busy schedules were "temporary aberrations" associated with their initial semesters on campus. Research suggests this is not the case. Such responses appear to have long-term negative effects on the new faculty's teaching styles (Boice, 1991b; Fink, 1984). Although faculty usually intend to "rethink" their strategies once they have survived their first years, they rarely go back to reexamine their behavior (Boice, 1991b; Fink, 1984) or to seek help in changing it (Boice, 1991b).

Attitudes Toward Teaching

The new faculty in the present study all believed that good teaching was expected of them and expressed a desire to excel at it. When asked during their second interviews to rate the level of campus pressure they felt to succeed as teachers, inexperienced faculty gave a rating of 7.5, experienced faculty a rating of 8. When asked to consider the level of their own desire to do well in this area, inexperienced faculty gave a rating of 9, experienced ones a rating of 8.5. However, only 33% of the experienced and 50% of the inexperienced new faculty said that they were primarily interested in teaching. In this regard, the new faculty perceived themselves as being different from their senior colleagues: 72% of the inexperienced and 100% of the experienced new faculty believed that the senior faculty were primarily interested in instruction.

When they first arrived on campus, the new faculty participating in this study were all aware that undergraduate instruction was the university's primary mission, but they were unsure what impact this had on the day-to-day operations of their departments. Some wondered about the extent to which their senior colleagues were only paying lip service to the mission. By the end of their first year on campus, the new faculty felt they had a clearer understanding of the value placed on teaching by the university. Sixty-eight percent of the new faculty said that their departments had very positive attitudes toward teaching: "They enjoy it. They want to teach"; "Certain people are designated as pros and if you have a problem you go to them"; "They care. It's a refreshing change."

Thirty-two percent, however, had become disillusioned. Some echoed the faculty member who said, "There's a lot of discussion but not about what goes on in the classroom. It's a lot of gossip about students." Others were disappointed in the attitudes of their senior colleagues: "For them it's a job—very mechanical—they're walking tape recorders. They just want to have it settled"; "They act like all that is important is to end up being high in the student rankings"; "For some teaching is a necessary evil. Some enjoy it. For the vast majority, hey, it's a job"; "Teaching is important but there is a certain amount of cynicism and discouragement." The new faculty responded in different ways to these attitudes. Some felt they could go their own way. Others were worried: "Faculty apathy is getting to me. I hope I can make a conscious effort to not let it affect me." A few sympathized with their senior colleagues: "I can understand how they feel. Teaching just takes so much time."

Collegial Support

In her interviews with new faculty at a large research university, Sorcinelli (1988) found that lack of collegial relations was "the most surprising and disappointing aspect of [the new faculty's] first year." In their study of new faculty at a teaching university, Boice and Turner (1989) noted that "relationships with colleagues were the most salient and pervasive source of dissatisfaction among all . . . new faculty." In the current study, only 12% of the new faculty rated the overall collegial support they were receiving as less than 7, and most felt that at least some of their colleagues had been "real friendly." Even at the end of their second semesters, after the initial glow of arriving on campus had faded, 47% of the inexperienced new faculty and 64% of the experienced ones reported being quite satisfied with the collegial support they were receiving.

The new faculty under study estimated that approximately one-quarter of their collegial interactions centered around teaching. Forty-four percent of the inexperienced new faculty said they were part of a network which discussed teaching; 62% percent of the experienced new hires said they were. These networks were all departmentally based. Typical comments made during the interviews were: "Teaching is the main topic of discussion in my department"; "My whole department commonly talks about teaching"; "Teaching is job number one—there's lots of discussion about it in the department." By the end of their second semesters, new faculty tended to stress that such networks were informal and anecdotal, but they continued to describe them favorably.

The new faculty also reported that they were collaborating in teaching with senior colleagues. During their first semesters on campus, approximately half of all the new faculty did so. By the second semester these percentages dropped to 43% for the inexperienced new faculty and 27% for the experienced ones. Ninety-four percent of the inexperienced and 77% of the experienced new faculty said they had received collegial advice on their teaching, most of which they considered to be helpful.

The collegial relationships described by the new faculty in this study do not appear to be typical. Boice (1991a) notes that none of the new faculty he interviewed were in departments where colleagues met occasionally to talk about teaching and that less than 5% could identify a social network on their campus for discussing it. He (Boice, 1991b) further reports that at the comprehensive university he studied, only 7 to 21% of the new faculty expected to collaborate with a colleague on teaching a class. Three to 6% reported receiving teaching-related collegial advice. In contrast, teaching at the institution in the current study often appears to provide a common ground where new and senior faculty meet.

The new faculty interviewed during this study seemed relatively proactive in establishing collegial interactions. Of those who had received collegial advice on their teaching, 88% of the inexperienced and 80% of the experienced new faculty said they had been the ones to seek it out. One inexperienced new faculty member noted that no one had "butted-into" her business. She had been the one to ask for suggestions on how to handle problems she was having. She felt this was appropriate. Others echoed her sentiments. Boice (1991a), in contrast, found new faculty to be "notably passive" about seeking collegial support and to generally expect others to come to them. His research indicates that those faculty who do take initiative in establishing collegial relationships tend to be those who thrive. However, since the climate at the institution under study seems to be relatively conducive to collegial interactions, establishing collegial relationships may be less significant on this campus than on others as a predictor of faculty success.

Teaching Styles

During the interviews the new faculty were asked to label their teaching styles as: (1) a "lecturer/fact and principles" style in which the teacher lectures in order to explain important facts and principles; (2) a "lecturer/interactive" style in which the teacher lectures but elicits significant student interaction; or (3) a "facilitator/class discussion" style in which the teacher serves as a facilitator of class discussions. Boice (1991b) found that the new faculty on the campuses he studied almost invariably reported using a "facts and principles" style of lecturing. On the campus now under study, only 12% of the inexperienced and 23% of the experienced new faculty used this style, unanimously giving unsolicited justifications for selecting this method. The majority of the new faculty, 77% of those who were inexperienced and 62% of those with experience, described their teaching styles as "lecturer/interactive." However, since faculty were not observed teaching, it is not known whether or not they actually do encourage greater student participation in their classrooms than do their colleagues on other campuses.

Strengths and Weaknesses

All the new faculty in the present study were able to respond quickly to questions about their strengths and weaknesses as teachers. New teachers most commonly noted as strengths their ability to clearly present material, their enthusiasm, and their empathy with and concern for students; as weaknesses, their lack of teaching skills such as pacing, facilitating student involvement, and evaluating student performance. The new faculty with teaching experience stressed their skill at organizing and presenting material in the classroom and their ability to interact well with students. The weaknesses they described were varied but most centered on the lack of pedagogical skills such as effectively pacing presentations and incorporating activities requiring student involvement. For example, one experienced faculty member said, "I don't build enough bridges"; another said, "I mistake teaching for just getting out information. I'm torn between this and having students learn to think."

The responses given by the new faculty in this study concerning their strengths and weaknesses as teachers differed from the most common responses given by the new faculty Boice (1991b) interviewed. In his study, the new faculty were more inclined to equate teaching ability with familiarity with subject matter and being well organized. They most often reported as their greatest strength the fact that they were well-prepared and knowledgeable, as their greatest weakness, that they tended to ask too much of their students. At both the teaching and research universities in Boice's study, the most common or the second most common response to the question about weaknesses was "None." No faculty in the current study gave this answer although given the opportunity to do so.

Plans to Improve

Boice (1991b) reported that a near majority of the new faculty he worked with had no plans to improve their teaching. At the university described in this report, three-quarters of the new faculty talked at length about such plans. Inexperienced teachers spoke most frequently about wanting to improve their teaching methods. Over half of their comments centered on a desire to be more interactive in the classroom. Experienced teachers most often described wanting to change the content of their courses and, with slightly less frequency, to develop teaching styles which facilitate student involvement.

In discussing their plans to improve their teaching, the new faculty often mentioned consulting senior colleagues. As was previously noted, 88% of the inexperienced and 80% of the experienced new faculty said they had sought collegial advice about teaching. Twenty-three percent said they were modeling some aspect of their teaching after other faculty in their departments. These percentages differ significantly from those in previous studies. Boice (1991b) found that only 7 to 8% of the new faculty he interviewed reported modeling themselves after colleagues.

Unfortunately, when describing the changes they expected to make in their teaching, the new faculty in the present study usually displayed little awareness of the campus resources available to assist them or of how the specific strategies they were hoping to implement might actually impact their students. For example, despite expressing an interest in learning how to encourage greater student participation, the majority of the new faculty were actually spending their time striving to thoroughly master their course content and tightly organize their classes. Boice's research (Boice, 1991b) suggests that this common way of attempting to gain control of teaching is usually counterproductive.

If these new faculty do go on to implement their plans, they will be unusual. Boice (1991b) and Fink (1984) have both noted that new faculty tend to develop conservative teaching styles and not to change them over time. However, the emphasis placed on teaching at the institution currently under study, combined with the relatively high levels of collegial support on campus, did appear to be influencing the new faculty's attitudes toward their teaching. Perhaps they will be more successful at translating their ambitions into reality than their peers at other institutions.

Teaching Evaluations

The new faculty participating in this study had received little feedback on their teaching by the end of their second semesters. Although quite of few had participated in peer reviews of teaching at other institutions, none had had their teaching evaluated by colleagues on their new campus. Lack of time, worries about imposing on others, and feelings of self-consciousness were all given as reasons for not requesting such collegial sharing.

The new faculty had only been through formal student evaluations once before their final interviews. When queried about their rankings in their departments, 52% said they had received student evaluation scores above the mean, 30% did not know how they compared with their colleagues, 9% received average scores, and another 9% received below-average ones. While on some campuses fear of student evaluations is a "driving force" (Boice, 1991b), at the university described in this report there was no indication that they were a source of significant anxiety.

The student evaluations, although generally considered to be fair, were judged by half the new faculty to be of little use—"too little, too late." One inexperienced teacher said, "They made me feel I was doing a good job but gave me no help in deciding what changes to make." A new, experienced teacher said, "The students here are a lot kinder, but the ratings are so high I don't know if they tell you anything." Several faculty said they had used their own in-course questionnaires to get fuller evaluations and quicker feedback.

Departmental Personnel Committees

Over one-third of both the experienced and inexperienced new faculty believed they had been hired to give at least equal weight to teaching and research. However, 72% of the inexperienced new faculty and 62% of those with experience thought that, given the university's mission, teaching should receive greater consideration than research in retention, tenure, and promotion decisions.

Like their peers on other campuses (Boice, 1992a; Fink, 1984; Sorcinelli, 1988), the new faculty interviewed in this study were unsure how their departmental personnel committees (DPCs) would evaluate their work. When pressed to guess what DPCs would value most when making promotion and tenure decisions, 69% of the experienced and 44% of the inexperienced new faculty thought that teaching would be most important. Fifteen percent of those with experience and 39% of those without it continued to express befuddlement: "I don't know. I asked people and got mixed messages"; "I would like to know the answer to that question"; "It all boils down to the luck of the draw—whether they like you or not"; "I don't know. I think it's politics." Despite this confusion, most of the new faculty were quite confident that they would be granted tenure in due course. When asked at the end of their first year on campus to rate the likelihood of this occurring, experienced faculty gave a rating of 9.5, inexperienced faculty a rating of 9.

Summary

This report presents data from a two-year study of new faculty at a comprehensive university. It describes how they were faring as teachers and compares them with their peers at other institutions. The study revealed a number of similarities between the new faculty on the various campuses. Most new faculty at all of the institutions studied to date found their work schedules distressingly hectic and dominated by teaching. In response, they tended to develop counter-productive work habits such as over-preparing for class. They often had misconceptions about what constituted effective pedagogical practice and rarely had received any helpful feedback on their teaching. Finally, many of the new faculty were unsure of their departments' priorities and the expectations of their DPCs.

The new faculty in the present study appeared to differ from their previously studied peers in several interesting ways. They all believed that good teaching was expected of them and wished to excel at it. They described finding generally high levels of collegial support, informal and teaching-related interactions between junior and senior faculty being common. They were atypically proactive, seeking out advice about teaching and developing plans to improve their performance. And they were more inclined to differentiate between pedagogical skills and subject mastery when discussing teaching than were new faculty at other instituions. Most importantly, all but a few had found their new campus to be a place where teaching really was "job number one."

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By Julie A. Hughes Caplow, Judy M. Wedman & John F. Wedman

Revisited: Students' Assessments of Effective Teaching Behaviors and Characteristics

There is renewed attention being given to effective teaching and the improvement of instruction. This study examined the characteristics and behaviors that students identify as important to effective teaching. Implications for staff development programs to improve instruction are discussed.

THE RESEARCH and literature on the teaching practices of college teachers are extensive, especially related to the identification of effective teaching based on student course evaluations. Historically, student evaluation instruments have been a primary source for teacher evaluation and have included lists of isolated teacher characteristics and behaviors (e.g. clarity of explanations, preparation for class, enthusiasm, knowledge of subject matter). However, staff development literature related to teaching practices suggests that wholistic practices such as inquiry, reflection, and problem solving are characteristics and behaviors important to effective teaching (Orlich, 1989; Lieberman & Miller, 1991; Schiro, 1992). The purpose of this article is to re-examine the characteristics/behaviors students identify as important to effective teaching and to explore implications for staff development programs designed to improve college teaching.

As early as 1954, Coffman identified some of the issues associated with defining effective teaching based on student ratings. Throughout the 1960s and early '70s, researchers (e.g., Crawford & Bradshaw, 1969; Gadzella, 1968; Mueller, 1971; Mannan, 1976) sought to identify the characteristics and behaviors of effective teaching.

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In addition to analyzing students' responses to course evaluations, this line of inquiry was approached in three other major ways, asking students to: 1) describe, in an unstructured format, the "ideal" teacher; (2) identify, in a structured format, the characteristics that they felt were especially important for good teaching; and, (3) describe their "best" teachers.

In an effort to synthesize this research, Feldman (1976) conducted a meta-analysis of 49 studies which sought to identify the attributes associated with "effective," "ideal," and "best" teachers. He then compared the qualities identified in this meta-analysis with studies that examined student evaluations of courses and instructors to determine the characteristics of effective teaching. He found that three characteristics: (1) stimulation of interest and clarity of explanations; (2) preparation and organization of course; and (3) enthusiasm for teaching or for the subject matter were most consistently associated with superior teachers and teaching.

Much of the early research on the characteristics of effective teaching occurred in a climate in which student evaluations of teaching were being adopted to assess the effectiveness of courses. Therefore, the practical implications of this research was to determine the types of items that should be included on course evaluations to accurately reflect the qualities of effective teaching. By the late 1970s, student course evaluations were a fairly well established method of evaluating effective teaching.

In the 1980s, a new concept, that of excellence, emerged in the higher education arena and was reflected in the language used as researchers continued to attempt defining effective teaching (e.g., Donaldson, 1988). Sherman et. al., (1987) focused on the idea of excellence in their analysis of three types of studies; ones in which: (1) students were asked to rate (usually on a Likert-type scale) specific characteristics related to excellent teaching; (2) students were asked to describe the characteristics that they associated with excellent teaching and teachers; and, (3) teachers identified as excellent (e;g;, recipients of teaching awards) were interviewed about the characteristics that they felt were important for excellent teaching. They found, fairly consistently, five characteristics that were associated with excellence in teaching across these studies: (1) preparation and organization; (2) clarity of explanations; (3) love of knowledge; (4) stimulating; and (5) enthusiastic.

Regardless of the terms used, effective, best, ideal, or excellent, the emphasis of these studies has typically been to identify the top five to ten characteristics or behaviors that students indicate are important for effective teaching. In evaluating instruction for both summative and formative purposes, often each item on the evaluation instrument is accorded equal importance. Yet, some teacher characteristics (e.g., knowledge of subject matter, enthusiasm, organization, and stimulation of interest) identified in the research are consistently among the most frequently cited ones.

There is renewed attention being given to effective teaching and the improvement of instruction on college campuses. Various student evaluation instruments are used as a basis for defining effective teacher practices and designing improvement strategies. Typically, developers of evaluation instruments intermix teacher characteristics/behaviors for student evaluation purposes. The instruments present a list of items such as "clarity of explanations" which imply that teaching is a combination of discrete skills and practices. Consequently, student evaluation results provide teachers with such minute pieces of information that wholistic practices needing improvement may be difficult to identify.

Upon close scrutiny of the array of items included on many student evaluation instruments it appears that broad categories of teacher characteristics/behaviors are reflected (for example, presentation skills, course structure and organization, interpersonal interactions with students, etc.). It seems reasonable to suggest that teachers could improve overall teaching if student evaluation results identified categories of practices rather than isolated characteristics and behaviors.

Given the historical practice and research base related to student evaluation of courses and instructors, it is timely to explore the implications student course evaluations have for improving college teachers' practices. There were two purposes to this study: (1) to identify categories of teacher characteristics/behaviors that students deemed most valuable; and, (2) to suggest implications for staff development activities related to the improvement of instruction.

Method

The site for this study was a public university in the Midwest which adopted new forms for the evaluation of instructors and courses in the Fall of 1993. Prior to the adoption of the new forms, a university task force on the evaluation of teaching had examined ways to enhance teaching effectiveness and improvement efforts. One recommendation from this committee was to use evaluation forms that included items to be used for formative purposes. As a result, each college of the university was encouraged to adopt an evaluation instrument developed and used at the University of Washington that included formative items.

The evaluation instrument had eight different forms corresponding to different class types which included:

- small lecture courses
- large lecture courses
- seminar/discussion courses
- problem-solving courses
- skills-oriented/hands-on courses (e.g.,art)
- discussion sections

- lecture courses which emphasize textbooks
- laboratory sections

There was some commonalty of items across the forms (e.g., "instructor's enthusiasm" was on all forms); however, many items were not included on all forms (e.g., "instructor's ability to contribute to discussion by introducing new ideas" was only on the seminar/discussion course form). A list of thirty-two characteristics/behaviors was derived from the various forms and included all items identified as formative. A list of items is provided in table 1.

TABLE 1
Valuable Characteristics of College Instruction

1. Instructor's organization of the course
2. Clarity of explanations
3. Instructor's ability to clearly express ideas
4. Instructor's use of examples or illustrations
5. Instructor's preparation for class
6. Instructor's enthusiasm (energy, dynamism)
7. Instructor's voice (clear, understandable)
8. Quality of questions or problems raised by instructor
9. Instructor's ability to present alternative explanations
10. Instructor's knowledge of subject matter
11. Instructor's encouragement of students to express themselves in class
12. Instructor's ability to provide satisfactory answers to students' questions
13. Instructor's availability for providing extra help when needed
14. Presentation of concepts in a logical and orderly sequence
15. Clearly stated course objectives
16. Maintaining a high interest level in class sessions
17. Instructor's ability to direct and maintain focus in class discussions
18. Instructor's ability to contribute to discussions by introducing new and fresh ideas
19. Instructor's ability to provide an atmosphere that is conducive to student learning
20. Instructor's openness to students' points of view
21. Instructor's encouragement of students' freedom to develop their own ideas
22. Instructor's encouragement of students to ask questions
23. Course assignments that contribute to understanding course content
24. Instructors' ability to clearly demonstrate expected skills
25. Sufficient opportunities in class to practice what was learned
26. Instructors communication of confidence in student's abilities
27. Instructor's recognition of student's progress
28. Homework assignments that are at an appropriate level of difficulty
29. Examinations that contribute to understanding course content
30. Strong relationship between lectures and texts
31. Relevant and useful textbook(s)
32. Instructor's ability to help students solve problems

In order to select items for the research instrument, the following process was followed. A list was made that included all items from the eight forms. Items that were worded similarly were considered and one was chosen as representative. Seven items were identical across forms and were listed once. All items that described different characteristics/behaviors were included. The final list used for data collection was derived by asking an outside expert to review the item selection to determine that all characteristic/behaviors indicated on the initial eight forms were included. The process resulted in generating a list of 32 teacher characteristics/behaviors.

The instrument was administered to 276 students all of which were enrolled in the communications course: Radio and Television in Modern Society. The course content was delivered by lecture and was a three credit humanities course in the College of Arts and Science. The course was chosen because it included a cross section of the university student population. Students were majors from various colleges and included: Arts and Science, Nursing, Engineering, Education, and Agriculture.

Fifty-five percent of the respondents were male and 45% were female. A chi-square statistic was used to determine if there were differences in male and female responses. The alpha level was set at .02 to determine statistical significance.

All grade levels were represented with the majority being freshmen (32%) and sophomores (32%). No statistically significant differences in responses by grade level were found using a chi-square statistic with an alpha level of .02. Students' g.p.a.'s ranged from .2 to 4.0 with the average g.p.a being 2.9. Each student was provided an instrument that included descriptive questions (gender, age, level in school, and G.P.A.), directions, and the 32 items. Responses were written on a line that preceded each item using a magnitude estimation scale (1 being no value through 10 being the ultimate value).

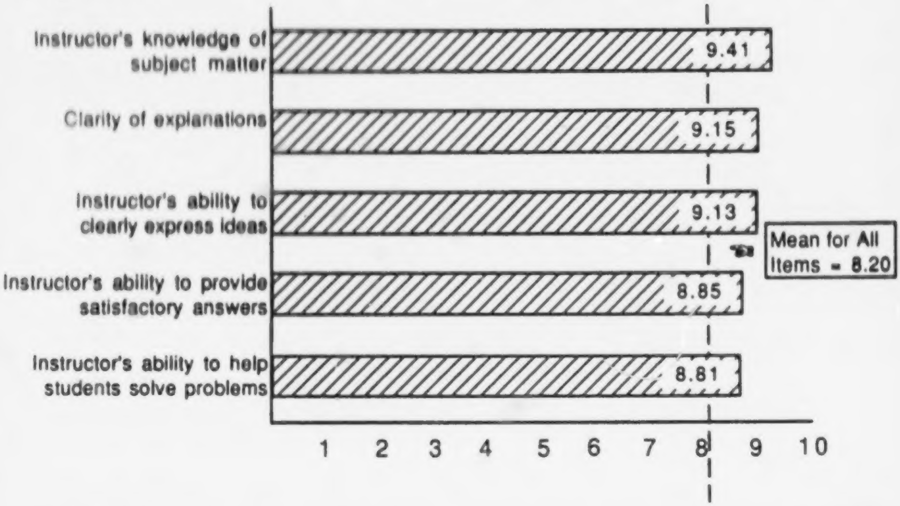
The magnitude estimation scaling technique (Bolanowski & Gescheider, 1991) asked students to identify effective teaching characteristics on a 10-point scale. Instructions to students indicated a score of "10" was to reflect the highest score possible and represent the *most* valuable characteristic imaginable. Conversely, a score of "1" was to be associated with no value. For example, in response to the characteristic, "Knowledgeable of content" a student might give a rating of "9" if the characteristic was perceived a being very valuable to effective teaching or a rating of "3" if the characteristic was perceived as not being valuable to effective teaching.

Analysis included computing mean scores, rank ordering, and categorization. Analysis regarding the first research question (development of categories of teacher characteristics/behaviors and identification of the categories deemed most valuable by students) included categorizing similar characteristics/behaviors which were then reviewed by an outside expert and computing the overall mean for the items within each category.

Results

Students rated all of the 32 items on the instrument as being relatively valuable teacher characteristics/behaviors. The item means ranged from 7.19 - 9.41. The most valuable characteristics/behaviors were identified by comparing item means to the mean for all means

Figure 1.



(8.20). These comparisons are presented in Figure 1.

Consistent with historical research findings, instructors' knowledge of subject matter and clear explanations continue to be among most valued teacher characteristics/behaviors. However, enthusiasm, organization, and preparation — identified in previous research as among the top five characteristics/behaviors of effective teachers — were not identified among the top five valuable characteristics/behaviors in this study. Rather, the instructor's ability to provide answers to students' questions, to clearly express ideas, and to help students solve problems were among the top five.

Five categories emerged when the items were grouped based on similarity of characteristics/behaviors: (1) *instructive practices:* (2) *recognition of individual differences*; (3) *course structure and organization*; (4) *class involvement*; and (5) *psycho-social concerns.*

Results indicate that the category of teacher characteristics/behaviors most valued by students was *instructive practices* which had a category mean of 8.63. The category with the lowest overall mean (7.59) was *psycho-social concerns.* A chi-square statistic (p .02) was used to determine if there were statistically significant differences in the categories by gender or by level (e.g., freshman, sophomore, etc.). There were no significant differences in category responses by level; however, there were significant gender differences in two categories. In the *class involvement* and *recognition of individual differences* categories, males were more likely to rate the items lower (<8) than were females.

The items in the *instructive practices* category reflect how the teacher communicates content in the classroom. The characteristics/behaviors in this category (e.g., "demonstration of skills to be learned") focus on course content and content delivery. The *recognition of individual differences* category includes teacher characteristics/behaviors that meet individual student needs and assist individual students (e.g., "helped students solve problems"). Items in the *course structure and organization* category include the way the course content is put together and materials that are used to support the course (e.g., "assignments that help understanding of content"). The *class involvement* category refers to teacher directed in-class activities that involve students (e.g., "provide in-class practice activities"). Finally, the *psycho-social concerns* category reflects teacher characteristics/behaviors that seek student input in the classroom and shows concern for student understanding of course content (e.g., "encourages students to ask questions").

TABLE 2
Categories and Means of Teacher Characteristics/Behaviors

Category	Mean
Instructive Practices	
Knowledge of subject matter	9.41
Clarity of explanations	9.15
Clearly expressed ideas	9.13
Concepts presented in logical sequence	8.39
Demonstration of skills to be learned	8.26
Provided examples or illustrations	8.22
Lectures related to texts	8.21
Maintained high interest level	8.71
Enthusiasm (energy, dynamism)	8.54
Voice (clear, understandable)	8.32
Category Mean	8.63
**Recognition of Individual Differences*	8.85
Helped students solve problems	8.81
Provided extra help	8.50
Open to student's point of view	8.26
Category Mean	8.60
Course Structure and Organization	
Exams contributed to learning content	8.53
Course organization	8.47
Relevant and useful textbook	8.46
Preparation for class	8.18
Assignments help understanding of content	7.94
Clearly stated objectives	7.60
Homework at appropriate difficulty level	7.56
Category Mean	8.10
**Class Involvement*	
Maintain focus during class discussions	8.02
Contribute new ideas to class discussions	7.88
Present alternative explanations	7.76
Provide in class practice activities	7.56
Present quality questions and problems	7.39
Category Mean	7.72
Psycho-social Concerns	
Provide atmosphere conducive to learning	7.82
Encourage students to ask questions	7.77
Encourage students to develop own ideas	7.62
Recognize student's progress	7.59
Communicate confidence in student abilities	7.56
Encourage students to express themselves	7.19
Category Mean	7.59

* significant differences between males and females (*p* .02)

Discussion

The research on the teacher characteristics/behaviors that students identify as effective or ideal, etc., based on student evaluations of teaching have been helpful in identifying items that should be included on course evaluation instruments. However, much of this research was done in the 1960s and '70s when evaluation instruments were beginning to be used on a wide-spread basis. During the 1980s, a reform mandate (e.g. Study Group on the Conditions of Excellence in American Higher Education, 1984) arose for colleges and universities, in part due to public perceptions that sufficient attention was not being paid to improving teaching. Since student evaluations of teaching are a major source of information to assess teaching effectiveness, examination of those characteristics/behaviors that students deem valuable should be re-visited on a regular basis. In addition, these assessments of teaching should provide a foundation for developing instructional improvement activities.

The results of this study pose two major implications for instructional improvement and faculty development activities. First, typically all of the items on instructor and course evaluations are summarized with a mean score. This mean score, then, is used to determine whether or not the instructor has been effective in teaching overall. However, students place varying degrees of value on different instructor practices. Focusing on overall means may not be an effective strategy for improving in specific areas identified as less effective on course evaluations. Therefore, it is important for those assisting faculty on an individual basis in improvement efforts (e.g., department chairs) to examine students' responses to each item. In so doing, areas needing improvement can be prioritized and specific intervention strategies can be designed which take into account students' assessment of the most valuable teacher characteristics or behaviors.

A second implication relates to college or university wide faculty development activities. Many institutions are providing faculty development on teaching improvement. These activities may be enhanced by focusing on categories of teacher practices that students identify as valuable. Generally, faculty development efforts focus on a broader range of teaching activities and are intended to enhance overall teaching effectiveness rather than provide specific intervention strategies for individual teachers. Therefore, workshops or seminars that focus on broader categories of teaching characteristics or behaviors, such as instructive practices, that students deem valuable may have more impact on general teaching improvement.

For example, "instructor's knowledge of subject matter," "clarity of explanations," "instructor's ability to clearly express ideas," and "instructor's ability to provide satisfactory answers" were among the top-rated characteristics. One possible faculty development activity might involve a series of worksessions in which faculty learn to use various forms of information and presentation technologies. Ranging from accessing information sources via the Internet to using presentation tools such as Persuasion and Power Point, faculty could develop well organized, flexible, and information-rich resources for illustrating key points and responding to questions.

Student evaluations of courses and instructors are only one source of information that can be used to assess teachers' effectiveness. However, they are widely used and significant decisions about individual faculty are made abased on these evaluations. Because of this, there should be ongoing research on the shifts or changes in the instructor characteristics that students deem valuable. Furthermore, recognition of those characteristics/behaviors that students deem more valuable than others enable the prioritization and development of appropriate intervention strategies on both an individual and overall basis.

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By Diane H. Jackman & Michael K. Swan

Faculty Perceptions Of Teaching Support Center Activities

Many educational reform efforts today recognize the importance of improving college teaching. A multi-level faculty development program at North Dakota State University includes a teaching improvement component. The purpose of this study was to determine the perceived needs of faculty related to teaching activities. Conclusions drawn provided direction for the Teaching Support Center.

FACULTY DEVELOPMENT programs focused on teaching improvement have been appearing on college campus' since the 1980s; some experiencing success and others experiencing limited success at best. The reasons behind the various levels of success are varied but some common themes have emerged (Weimer, 1991, Eble & McKeachie, 1985).

Weimer (1991) acknowledged that most college faculty are not motivated to improve their teaching and that many resist. Faculty are threatened when there is a focus on teaching improvement because they view themselves as experts in their respective fields and do not think they need to learn how to teach. Too often, when teaching improvement is initiated it is viewed by faculty as remedial rather than faculty development enhancing what is already happening in the classroom. Effective faculty development programs focus on the latter (Weimer).

If the aim is to improve teaching, faculty must be motivated intrinsically to improve their teaching performance. This motivation results in faculty who are more committed to improving their instructional skills and interested in the programs offered with an end result of more positive attitudes toward teaching (Weimer, 1991, Eble, 1983). A part of motivation is involvement in the planning of faculty development programs. Without faculty involve-

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ment, any faculty development program will not succeed (Hammons & Smith Wallace, 1976). Determining needs of a group prior to planning programs has been around and evolving since the mid-sixties. The rationale behind needs assessment is an outgrowth of planning and implementing successful programs based on the perceived needs of the clientele (Stufflebeam, McCormick, Brinkerhoff & Nelson, 1985). If faculty development programs are developed without input from the target audience, they stand little chance of being successful (Bradley, Kallick, & Regan, 1991).

Successful faculty development programs focus their efforts in several different areas and are coordinated by faculty members (Weimer, 1991). Seminars or "brown bags" on topics related to teaching are very useful to some faculty while other faculty prefer one-on-one contact (McKeachie, 1986, Eble & McKeachie, 1985). A resource library containing books, pamphlets, audio tapes, and videotapes can be useful for many. Well-known speakers can motivate faculty to explore new methods (Weimer, 1991, Eble & McKeachie, 1985). Faculty have many different reasons for teaching so it is important to offer programs and activities that will appeal to a broad audience and give enough opportunities for all faculty to participate. Because of this diversity, no single delivery method is best for all.

Topics for faculty development programs share some commonalties but many are specific to the institution and concerns/problems at one point in time. Areas found to be effective range from academic advising to enhancing computer skills (Weimer, 1991, Eble & McKeachie, 1985).

Katz and Henry (1988) noted that any change takes time especially when related to teaching and programs for improvement. They cautioned faculty development programs to allow time for programs to succeed.

North Dakota State University is a land-grant university with an undergraduate and graduate student population of slightly under 10,000. The majority of the students are from North Dakota or Minnesota. The main university campus in Fargo is composed of eight colleges and one school: Agriculture; Business Administration; Engineering and Architecture; Human Development and Education; Humanities and Social Sciences; Pharmacy; Science and Mathematics; University Studies; and the Graduate School.

Since 1992, North Dakota State University (NDSU) has been involved in an on-going strategic planning process. As part of this endeavor, there has been a renewed commitment and emphasis placed on teaching and learning. This emphasis added to the strong commitment to faculty development enhanced by the Bush Foundation grants received since 1980. At the present time, NDSU is engaged in a multi-level program focused on the improvement of teaching including activities supported by the Bush Foundation grant as well as activities funded directly by the University. The current project includes: (a) a freshmen orientation course, (b) a mathematical enrichment program for freshmen and sophomores, (c) a faculty seminar, (d) a writing workshop for faculty, and (e) the teaching support center. All five of these components are directly related to improving the classroom experiences of both the faculty and the students, a key element in improving collegiate instruction (Weimer, 1991).

Problem Statement And Objectives

The purpose of this study was to determine the perceived needs of the faculty at North Dakota State University (NDSU) related to teaching activities. The objectives of this study are reflected in the following research questions:

1. What activities related to teaching do NDSU faculty believe *are* important on our campus?
2. What activities related to teaching do NDSU faculty believe *should be* important on our campus?

Research Methods And Procedures

The population for this study included all faculty teaching at North Dakota State University during the Fall of 1992 which totaled 465. The entire population was sampled. There were 324 instruments returned which provided a response rate of 69.7 percent. Demographic data was not collected on each individual responding to the survey. The researchers made a conscious decision not to identify colleges or departments in an effort to provide development opportunities for ALL faculty and not a sub-section of faculty.

The survey instrument was developed by the co-directors of the Teaching Support Center. The activities listed in the instrument were drawn from the literature and from discussions with other faculty development program leaders around the country. After the list of activities was compiled, a panel of experts drawn from the NDSU faculty were asked to review the list to ensure that items carried a common meaning. Several items not related directly to teaching were eliminated resulting in an instrument with 23 items.

Each item required the respondent to answer in two ways: first they were to identify how important the item was currently at NDSU and second they were to identify how important the item should be at NDSU. To determine the faculty's perceptions, a Likert-type scale (1-5) was used to define the levels.

Data were gathered through the use of direct-mail questionnaires. The survey was sent via campus mail to all faculty in mid-September with a requested return date of October 1.

Findings And Conclusions

Table 1 identifies the means and standard deviations of items which

TABLE 1
Means of Important Activities Which Are Happening on the NDSU Campus.

Rank	Item/Activity	Mean	S.D.
1.	Providing New Faculty Orientati on Sessions	3.07	1.31
2.	Developing Effective Course Syllabi	2.91	1.15
3.	Utilizing Students in the Assessment of Teaching Effectiveness	2.88	1.23
4.	Developing Skills in Using Computer Software	2.61	1.16
5.	Providing Faculty Brown Bag Seminars	2.52	1.31
6.	Developing an Understanding of Multicultural Issues	2.31	1.28
7.	Developing a Cultural Awareness of International Students	2.29	1.18
8.	Providing Assistance to Improve Faculty Teaching Skills	2.26	1.17
9.	Utilizing Interactive Video Network with Off-Campus Students	2.25	1.22
10.	Developing Skills in Using Technology in Classroom Instruction	2.22	1.20
11.	Developing SKills in Working With International Students	2.19	1.11
12.	Developing Addtional Teaching Strategies	2.16	1.12
13.	Utilizing Self-Assessment for Professional Improvement in Teaching	2.11	1.29
14.	Assisting with the Development of Writing Intensive Courses	2.04	1.28
15.	Developing Skills in the Understanding of Diverse Constituencies	2.02	1.30
16.	Developing Skills in Grading	1.95	1.12
17.	Developing Skills in Test Construction	1.91	1.09
18.	Developing an Understanding of Issues in the Ethics of Grading	1.89	1.13
19.	Developing Teaching Methods for Laboratory Courses	1.79	1.22
20.	Providing Summer Teaching Improvement Workshops	1.78	1.16
21.	Providing Faculty/Student Relations Workshops	1.77	1.23
22.	Developing Skills in Peer Role Modeling	1.61	1.22
23.	Developing Faculty Referral Networks	1.51	1.23

are currently happening on the NDSU campus. The faculty have identified Providing New Faculty Orientation sessions as the highest ranking item with a mean of 3.07, while Developing Faculty Referral Networks was the lowest ranking item currently being addressed at NDSU.

The NDSU faculty mean ranking of activities which should be happening are identified in Table 2. Providing Assistance to Improve Faculty Teaching Skills was the highest ranking activity with a mean of 4.08 and standard deviation of .98. In comparison, the same statement was the 8th ranked activity currently occurring at NDSU, Table 1, with a mean of 2.26 and a standard deviation of 1.17.

Developing Effective Course Syllabi was an activity which ranked second in both the *should be* and *are* activities at NDSU. Developing Skills in Using Computer Software was ranked fourth in both categories.

Providing New Faculty Orientation Sessions was rated third in the *should be* category with a mean response of 3.84. The same statement is ranked as the number one activity currently at NDSU with a mean of 3.07.

Fifth in the *should be* category was Developing Skills in Using Technology in Classroom Instruction with a mean of 3.79 and a stand-

TABLE 2
Means of Important Activities Which Should Be Happening on the NDSU Campus.

Rank	Item/Activity	Mean	S.D.
1.	Providing Assistance to Improve Faculty Teaching Skills	4.08	.98
2.	Developing Effective Course Syllabi	3.97	.93
3.	Providing New Faculty Orientation Sessions	3.84	1.06
4.	Developing Skills in Using Computer Software	3.82	1.13
5.	Developing Skills in Using Technology in Classroom Instruction	3.79	1.13
6.	Developing Additional Teaching Strategies	3.74	1.14
7.	Utilizing Students in the Assessment of Teaching Effectiveness	3.73	1.00
8.	Developong Skills in Test Construction	3.73	1.16
9.	Utilizing Self-Assesment for Professional Improvement in Teaching	3.71	1.16
10.	Developing Skills in Grading	3.62	1.19
11.	Developing an Understanding of Issues in the Ethics of Grading	3.55	1.20
12.	Assisting with the Development of Writing Intensive Courses	3.45	1.43
13.	Developing Skills in Working with International Students	3.44	1.12
14.	Developing a Cultural Awareness of International Students	3.43	1.20
15.	Providing Faculty/Student Relations Workshops	3.41	1.29
16.	Providing Summer Teaching Improvement Workshops	3.30	1.32
17.	Developing an Understanding of Multicultural Issues	3.27	1.35
18.	Developing Teaching Methods for Laboratory Courses	3.18	1.54
19.	Developing Skills in the Understanding of Diverse Constituencies	3.16	1.36
20.	Utilizing Interactive Video Network with Off-Campus Students	3.09	1.33
21.	Developing Faculty Referral Networks	2.76	1.58
22.	Providing Faculty Brown Bag Seminars	2.75	1.24
23.	Developing Skills in Peer Role Modeling	2.59	1.54

ard deviation of 1.13. The same statement was rated tenth in current activities with a mean of 2.22.

In Table 3, the top 10 responses to the *should be* and the corresponding ranking of the *are* category are identified. Developing effective course syllabi, providing new faculty orientation sessions and developing skills in using computer software are the top ranked items on both *should be* and *are* lists. It is important to notice that providing assistance to improve faculty teaching skills is not currently an important activity identified by faculty, but faculty have identified this same concept as one where faculty should be receiving increased assistance.

Implications And Recommendations

The results of this study indicate that faculty were looking for developmental opportunities to improve teaching skills and students' learning. Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations were formulated for the NDSU campus. Faculty development programs focused on improving teaching skills should be implemented for the teaching faculty at NDSU. Developing an effective course syllabi as a means of communicating between faculty and students was essential. Developing skills or teaching strategies in utilizing com-

TABLE 3
Rankings of Important Teaching Activities Which Should Be and Are Happening on the NDSU Campus

	Should Be	Are
Providing Assistance to Improve Faculty Teaching Skills	1	8
Developing Effective Course Syllabi	2	2
Providing New Faculty Orientation Sessions	3	1
Developing Skills in Using Computer Software	4	4
Developing Skills in Using Technology in Classroom Instruction	5	10
Developing Additional Teaching Strategies	6	12
Utilizing Students in the Assessment of Teaching Effectiveness	7	3
Developing Skills in Test Construction	8	17
Utilizing Self-Assessment for Professional Improvement in Teaching	9	13
Developing Skills in Grading	10	16

puters and technologies in classroom instruction was essential and needed. Developing skills in test construction and assessment was needed to improve teaching and faculty effectiveness.

The focus of the Teaching Support Center activities for the past two years has been based on the findings from this survey. A survey at the beginning of any new program is important as it helps to define the goals and objectives of the program. Directions for the long term success of the program can be molded to fit into the nuances of faculty needs and desires. If programs are focused on faculty interests, faculty will use the programs or services offered. If faculty are happy with the experience, they will speak favorably of the center and refer colleagues for help in teaching efforts. Faculty attendance at the NDSU mini sessions has been good and the videotapes made of each mini session have been used by individuals and some departments for monthly faculty development meetings.

The study has implications that reach beyond NDSU and can help other institutions in the development and implementation of teaching and learning support centers. Originally a tri-directorate was established to coincide with the ideal of total quality management (TQM). As the Center progressed, it was determined that a co-directorate would be a more efficient management strategy and still uphold the ideal of TQM. The co-directorate has been beneficial in both the management of the center as well as the services offered by the Center. It allowed faculty a choice of who they interact with and an option of styles.

The establishment of any teaching and learning support center involves a substantial commitment from the central administration for operational costs and possibly for developmental activities of the directors, depending upon the backgrounds of the directors. It is critical to appoint faculty as the center directors because the faculty are already known to the campus and are not viewed as administrators, an important consideration for some faculty. It is recommended that the directors are tenured and have a strong background in educational pedagogy. Faculty working toward tenure do not have the extra time needed to make the center successful unless they are given release time and the center development can be counted as part of their promotion and tenure package. The background in educational pedagogy is critical since the entire teaching and learning center is focused on the improvement of teaching and student learning. Without this grounding, a director will be unable to assist those faculty who want to improve their teaching skills and student learning.

Any institution embarking on the establishment of a Teaching Support Center must realize that instantaneous results will not occur. It takes time for faculty to establish a trust with the director(s) and staff involved with the Center but given the time and support, an effective center can be established.

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By Mary Pat Mann

The Role of Outside Work in Academic Careers

We know little about the impact of outside work on faculty, although half of the faculty in this study viewed such experiences as critical to their career development. As careers become more flexible, faculty developers will need to understand and work with a wider variety of career paths for faculty.

STUDIES OF FACULTY life usually focus on the academic career, on work directly connected to an institution of higher education. Work outside the academy is usually ignored or treated as an undesirable interruption. Yet actual career patterns show that some form of outside work is a common experience: Between half and two-thirds of faculty worked outside academia after finishing college and almost half came to the faculty from other work settings, a pattern more common in two-year colleges, in the professions, and in soft fields (Armour, Caffarella, Fuhrmann & Wergin, 1989; Bowen & Schuster, 1986, Clark, 1987; Sorcinelli, 1986).

Periods of outside work *during* an academic career, while infrequent overall (Finkelstein, 1984), are proving significant in the careers of academic women. Women accommodate their careers to family needs more than men do (Aisenberg & Harrington, 1988; Heckman, Bryson, & Bryson, 1977) and "career disruption" is one model currently being explored to explain continuing findings of lower salaries and rates of promotion and tenure for women, despite equal levels of productivity (McElrath, 1992; Rosenfeld & Jones, 1986).

Outside work has different functions and impacts for faculty in different fields. In the professions, career options outside the academy may be more plentiful and more lucrative than those within. In other applied fields, moving into academia from outside work represents career advancement; for example, from teaching high school students to conducting research and training future

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teachers. Some faculty enter academia as a second career unrelated to their earlier work; acceptance of nontraditional careers patterns appears to be increasing (Muller, 1990).

Understanding the impact of "outside" work becomes more important as boundaries between the private sector and higher education blur. Outside work is moving into the academy, in the form of increasingly explicit contracts between businesses and universities (Emmert & Crow, 1989; Fairweather, 1989), an emerging role for the academy that is neither fully integrated nor understood (Cote & Cote, 1993; Tornquist & Kallsen, 1994).

All of these factors suggest that learning more about career experiences outside the academy, and the extent to which faculty view them as important, would benefit faculty developers. Faculty development as a field has become increasingly aware of the need to understand career patterns in consulting with faculty. A variety of developmental models have been proposed and applied to faculty careers, with varying success (Blackburn, 1985; Mann, 1987). More recently, successful faculty development efforts have targeted faculty at specific career stages, addressing their particular needs (e.g., Schuster & Wheeler, 1990).

Disciplinary differences in culture, history and career patterns also affect faculty needs and interests. While faculty developers are certainly aware of these differences, their impact has not been explored in the faculty development literature. The study reported here attempts an integration across career models by placing individual career histories in a disciplinary context. By exploring how individual careers reflect and have been affected by discipline-related patterns, developers can more effectively collaborate with an increasingly diverse faculty.

Methods

This paper is drawn from a study of critical experiences in faculty careers (Mann, 1989), and focuses on the work experiences outside academia that faculty listed as critical to their career development. Three questions were addressed: What proportion of critical career events represent work outside academia? What kinds of events are reported? What relevant patterns of events can be identified?

The study examined critical events in faculty careers in a variety of categories. A survey asked faculty to identify critical career events, as well as educational and career histories, career goals, and background data such as age, sex, and marital status. From a sample of 400, faculty returned 179 usable questionnaires (44%). The respondents included 142 men and 37 women, and 28 minority faculty. There were 56 full professors, 58 associates, and 65 assistants; 67% were tenured. The original sample was stratified by sex, disciplinary area, and rank. Because response rates were lower than desired, analyses were conducted to compare respondents and nonrespondents; responses were proportional across the sample strata of sex, disciplinary area and rank.

Critical events. Not all faculty described career events in the same way. Many listed actual events such as, *Accepting my first position as a professional dietician.* Others included decisions, realizations, or descriptions as well as ongoing or emerging conditions, such as, *Teaching preschool children* or *Decided on a career change.*

Some faculty described multiple events in a single space, or explained the reasons or significance of an occurrence:

> *Gulf Oil acquired by Chevron. Decided it was time to get out. My former thesis advisor suggested that I look into at position at _____.*
>
> *I was assigned duty to paddle unruly children during lunch hour. This gave me a bad start in teaching.*
>
> *Instrumental in forming a cooperative repertory dance company, which meant that my career was not limited to working only in New York City.*

Each entry was therefore coded into as many categories as appropriate, resulting in multiple codings for many responses. Career events were grouped according to the settings in which they took place: 1) schooling, 2) the academic career, 3) work outside academia, and 4) life away from work. Only work outside academia is considered here, subdivided into events related to military service, business and industry, elementary and secondary schools, and professional practice or performance; faculty consulting was not included. Outside work events were examined in relation to three sets of variables: personal, academic, and chronological.

Personal variables. These included sex, marital status, and number of children. Marital status reflected current status only, not marital history; many unmarried faculty were divorced or separated.

Academic variables. These measures included rank, tenure, and disciplinary area as defined by Biglan (Biglan, 1973a, 1973b). The Biglan classification, based on empirical studies of faculty and academic departments, divides disciplines into eight groups based on three criteria: whether the discipline is hard or soft (in the Kuhnian sense), pure or applied, and deals with life or nonlife systems.

Chronological variables. Studies of career development seldom compare different measures of time, although the value of such comparisons has been demonstrated (Morrow and McElroy, 1987). This study included four measures: age, the number of years since receiving a terminal degree (the beginning of the disciplinary career), the number of years since the first academic position (the beginning of the academic career), and the number of years at this institution (the beginning of the organizational career). All of the chronological variables were correlated; coefficients ranged from .71 to .87. Therefore, when two or more of these measures appear in the same equation with opposite signs, the interactions indicate significant patterns.

Analyses. Following the qualitative analysis that created the event typologies, stepwise multiple regression was used to assess relationships between each variable set and the events. A backward-stepping procedure ensured that all relevant variables and interactions were considered. ANOVA was used to analyze academic rank. For all analyses, the number of events reported in each setting became the dependent, or criterion, variable. All findings are significant at p.<01 unless otherwise noted.

Findings

Table 1 shows the basic patterns of outside work events that faculty reported. Note that faculty were asked to report only those events they felt were *critical* in their career development. Half the faculty in this sample recorded at least one such critical event, suggesting that actual outside work experience was much more common overall.

Although this paper focused on outside work, these events should be viewed in the context of critical career events overall. On the average, school events accounted for one third (33%) of the events reported, academic career events for 39%, and life away from work for 20%. Outside work events accounted for 16% of the total. This is less than the other areas, but remains significant, in part because its impact on academic careers is largely unexplored. (The proportions total more than 100% because multiple events were coded into two areas.)

TABLE 1
Outside career events reported by faculty

	Number of Events	Range of Events	Number of Faculty (%)
Military	31	1-3	23 (12.8)
Public School	51	1-6	21 (11.7)
Business & Industry	61	1-5	27 (15.1)
Professional	70	1-5	34 (19.0)
Total – Outside Career	213	1-6	89* (49.7)

*Some faculty listed outside career events in more than one category, so "total faculty" does not equal the sum of the categories.

Table 2 presents significant results (adjusted R^2 and beta weights) from the regressions. Older faculty in applied fields who had begun their academic careers more recently and joined this institution more recently listed more outside work events. Several of the chronological variables proved significant, but rank and tenure did not, confirming that rank is not the variable of choice for studying patterns of academic career development (although promotions in rank can represent important milestones) (Austin, 1989).

The career patterns of faculty in pure and applied fields appear to be significantly different. Only 8% of the career events for faculty in pure fields, but 22% of the events reported by faculty in applied fields, related to outside work. The outside work experiences of faculty in applied fields adds another dimension to their careers which diminishes the

TABLE 2
Beta weights and adjusted R^2 for outside events

	Military	Business & Industry	Public Schools	Professional Practice	Overall
Personal					
sex (male) *	—	.25	—	-.16	—
# children	—	—	—	.13	—
Disciplines					
soft (vs. hard)	—	—	.18	—	—
applied (vs. pure)	—	—	.14	.24	.35
life (vs. nonlife)	—	-.21	—	.20	.12
Chronological					
age	*.16	.57	.38	.23	.84
years since degree	—	-.38	—	.52	—
years in academia	—	—	-.42	-.56	-.29
years at institution	—	-.25	—	-.22	-.52
Adjusted R^2	*.02	.14	.12	.36	.30

*p.<05, all others p.<01

R^2 indicates the proportion of the variance in the criterion variable explained by the predictor variables; beta weights provide a standardized measure of the impact of each variable.

relative importance of schooling and the academic career itself.

Overall, women did not report more outside work events than men, although there were differences across work settings. Analyses did not show a pattern of career disruption for women. This proved to be a result of the coding scheme, however, rather than the data: Personal events were coded in a separate category, and did show disruptions that were significant for women (Mann, 1990).

Military Service. Of 23 faculty listing 31 events in this category, ten simply noted that they had served. Three described military experiences as a negative impact on their careers because of the experience itself or the interruption it caused:

> *WWII interrupted my progress toward a B.S. degree and delayed it 3 1/2 years.*

> *Trauma of returning to civilian life, now four years behind peers. I want a practice and am uncertain as to my earning capacity. My wife wants a home as a first priority. Marital stress – became a workaholic, working 80+ hours per week.*

> *Wanted pre-med until I served four years in the medical corps; somewhat disillusioned in this period.*

For the remaining faculty, military service provided opportunities or lead to a clarification of career goals, even though the actual experiences were in some cases traumatic:

> *Military security agency – opportunities for leadership, further focused educational goals.*

> *Experience as a soldier in Europe during the Second World War, including capture in the Battle of the Bulge and imprisonment in Germany, including surviving the firebombing of Dresden with Kurt Vonnegut. These experiences led me toward the study of European history, to understand why!*

Only age was related to the number of events listed in this category, and its significance was marginal. More men than women listed such events (14.8% vs. 5.4%), but the difference was not significant, perhaps due to the small sample. In most cases, military service occurred before faculty had received their final degrees. Only three faculty entered the military after graduate training -- an engineer and two physicians. All military events occurred before the academic career began.

Hogan (1978) argued that military service should be viewed as a traumatic event, in part because it puts an individual behind his age cohort; yet this seemed true for few faculty in this sample.

Public School Teaching and Administration. Critical events in this setting were concentrated in the soft/life/applied fields -- chiefly represented by education itself, a field in which public school experience is a prerequisite for many faculty appointments. No faculty in the social sciences or life sciences listed such events and few faculty in other areas did so. Women were more likely to list such experiences than men (18.9% vs. 9.9%), but the difference was not significant.

Most faculty taught public school by choice, although two women reported entering teaching when they could not find other work after relocating with their spouses. Twelve faculty described various teaching experiences; twelve listed transitions:

> *I taught elementary school. I was in the middle grades when I started – the first year was horrendous, I was too idealistic.*

> *I transferred to another school where I was very happy for three years. There was a range of students there from nonreaders to university kids – I was in heaven.*

> *Moved from junior high mathematics to senior high mathematics and TV coordination. Reason: needed a challenge and upward mobility.*

Six faculty reported administrative positions and three described professional service relating to public schooling:

> *Accepted "interim" position as Director of Staff Development and Federal Programs.*

> *Found a Superintendent 3-year contract. Six weeks later the Board (4 of 5) wanted to break the contract because they didn't know a woman would want to "run the district" like a man!*

Older faculty who had more recently begun their academic careers listed more public school events. Public school teaching usually occurred before faculty had received their final degrees and entered academia, although four faculty reported promotions to administrative positions after receiving their doctorates. Two faculty reported teaching after completing their graduate training; one was underemployed following a relocation and the other had a masters rather than doctoral degree. Only one faculty reported professional involvement with schools after beginning his academic career, in a project to establish a teacher training program.

Business and Industry. Faculty in nonlife fields listed more outside work in business and industry; these experiences were concentrated in engineering and business, although faculty in the social sciences and hard sciences also reported some involvement. 5.4% of women and 17.6% of men reported events in this category. Older faculty who had received their degrees more recently were more likely to list these events.

The most significant subcategories seemed to divide events occurring before and after receiving the final degree. Work experiences occurring after the final degree, when the faculty member was fully qualified to begin an academic career, represented an alternate career choice. These faculty were much more likely to be in engineering or the hard sciences:

> *Decision to leave the field of academics in order to pursue more vigorously my research interests, and due to disagreements with the prevailing view held by my superiors.*

> *Work results not accepted by employer; research results were ignored and suppressed. Decided to seek "academic freedom" in the university setting.*

> *After three months with an oil company began seeking an academic position – was unhappy with the career pattern.*

Outside work that occurred before graduate school represented a broader array of experiences. The single largest group included four faculty who had pursued business careers with a B.A. or M.B.A. before returning for their doctorate. A few worked in engineering with an undergraduate or masters degree. Others reported previous work experiences that included civil service, sales, and owning a restaurant:

> *A new company policy to upgrade staff. Decided to go for the Ph.D. Shifted to project management.*

> *After a few years, I realized I was not the marketing type. It took too much to dot all the i's.*

> *Completed by B.S., took a position with a large chemical company, and was married. I was idealistic as a teenager, this now had an opportunity to develop.*

Professional Practice or Performance. Faculty in applied, life fields (both soft and hard) listed more events. A breakdown by disciplinary area showed that this category was dominated by the health sciences. Some faculty in the fine arts, in psychology, and in social service fields also reported professional involvements as critical career events.

Women listed more events in this category than men (24.3% vs. 17.6%); those with more children also did so. Faculty who were older, had held their degrees longer, but had come to academia more recently listed more of these events.

Most faculty completed final degrees, entered private practice, then moved to academia; this group included physicians, psychologists, nurses, a journalist, a dancer, and an attorney. A smaller group pursued a professional career with a bachelors or masters degree, then returned to graduate school and entered academia, including a dietician, an architect, a civil servant, a therapist, a school psychologist, and a musician. Most of the reported events simply noted that a professional career had occurred. A few listed special professional achievements or events which led to the academic career:

> *Becoming a newspaper reporter.*
>
> *Moved to NYC. Accepted as soloist in a dance company. Realize I am not interest in dancing only and leave the company to begin work as a solo artist.*
>
> *Planned and built a proprietary hospital of 54 beds which grew to 200 beds.*

Conclusions and Implications

The pattern of outside work events in different disciplinary areas followed distinct patterns over time. For those faculty reporting outside work experience, the important distinction was between academia as *career advancement* and academia as an *alternate career.* When significant work experiences occurred before the final degree was completed, and completion of the degree led to the first academic appointment, academia represented advancement. This pattern characterized faculty in business and management, in allied health, and in the fine arts.

In contrast, when the final degree is required for practice, academia represents an alternate career. This is true in engineering, applied science fields, psychology and medicine. Some fields showed both patterns: In education, new doctorates might to return to work outside academia or begin an academic career right away. This dual pattern also occurs in nursing, and fields like journalism. Only physicians and clinical psychologists routinely continued to practice after beginning their academic careers; for others, involvement in outside professional work had a very different character once the academic career began.

Understanding how faculty differ across the academic disciplines is one of the unresolved challenges in studies of higher education. Faculty in this study showed more differentiation across the pure/applied dimension than either of the other two. Kuh and Whitt (1988) argued that these differences arise because pure and applied faculty experience different patterns of socialization. In general, faculty in pure fields decide on an academic career earlier than faculty in the professions or other applied fields (Sorcinelli, 1986; Furhman, et al., 1988). Faculty in applied fields also show more varied career experiences.

Other studies concur that faculty value outside work experiences as significant in their academic career development. In psychology, nonacademic work was only a barrier to advancement in an academic career in elite universities (Rosenfeld & Jones, 1986). Psychology is a highly differentiated field with many opportunities for outside work, however, and may not be typical in this regard. It is interesting to note, therefore, that faculty at liberal arts colleges gave higher ratings to a career model that included a mixture of outside and academic work than to the classic linear approach (Austin, 1989; Pavel, Rice & Austin, 1989).

The relationship between a particular discipline and the private sector will affect the relationship between members of the discipline and the academy. The wider career opportunities of faculty in the professions and in highly marketable fields are typically reflected in their salaries. The impact of these salary differentials on faculty morale is understood, if not addressed, in faculty development. Seldom considered, however, is how wider career opportunities affect faculty commitment to the institution, or their image of themselves as faculty members. Exploring outside work experiences in consulting with faculty, and developing a deeper understanding of disciplinary differences in this area, will add new dimensions to research and faculty development efforts.

Faculty developers might also keep in mind that not all "junior" faculty are novices. In applied fields like education, a new faculty member may have had a successful career in public school teaching or administration before taking a faculty position. Even in pure disciplines, faculty come to academia in different ways. Life experiences will certainly affect values, attitudes and skills, and can represent important resources for faculty development.

Kristensen and Moulton (1993) addressed the challenges that can face faculty — and faculty developers — in the transition from professional practice to academic settings. They note that most literature about faculty rely on traditional career models, which assume that new faculty draw on a history of socialization to academia reaching back to the undergraduate years. This assumption is clearly false for faculty in emerging fields like record production and music synthesis (the focus of their article), but many of the issues apply equally to other faculty who enter academia from works settings.

Kristensen and Moulton found that typical interventions such as orientation workshops or teaching observation worked well with faculty in such transitions, but the faculty developer must be aware of the impact of the professional context:

> What is important to keep in mind here is that socialization experiences encountered outside the academy

> are going to be significantly different from those within the academy, and that these differences will play an important role in how the new faculty member develops as a teacher. The experiences, memories, learning paradigms, and roles encountered in various learning become the educational model that new faculty members carry with them to the job. The values inherent in the predominant experiences become central to the new faculty member's approach to teaching. (p 50).

The academy is conservative, resisting both the appearance and the reality of change. The image of the academic career as a smooth progression from undergraduate to graduate school, and on to a series of advancing faculty appointments will persist far longer than it reflects the actual experiences of faculty. Faculty developers, however, work with real faculty and cannot afford to be seduced by traditional norms (Mann, 1987). We must learn about actual faculty experiences and values to work with them effectively. Clearly, outside work experiences merit more attention. Considering their impact and timing will enhance our understanding of academic career patterns as well as the professional development needs of faculty in different disciplines.

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BOOK REVIEWS

At-Risk Students and Appraisal and Staff Development

The following book reviews involve titles of interest to professional development practitioners.

At-Risk Students

***Between a Rock and a Hard Place: The At-Risk Student in the Open-Door College* by John E. Roueche and Suanne D. Roueche. Washington, D.C.: The American Association of Community Colleges, 1993, xii + 294 pp. $27.50 ($23.00 for AACC members).**

Reviewed by Joseph N. Hankin

John Roueche, who is a professor at and director of the Community College Leadership Program at the University of Texas at Austin, where he holds the Sid W. Richardson Regents Chair in Community College Leadership, and Suanne D. Roueche, who is the director of the National Institute for Staff and Organizational Development (NISOD), editor of *Innovation Abstracts*, and a lecturer in the Department of Educational Administration, College of Education, The University of Texas at Austin, collaborated on this book.

The book, a follow-up of previous work done a decade ago, and capping a quarter-century of research and practice in the subject, is a gem! It is more than *deja-vu* and more than just a restatement of previous material on which the authors have worked, for it is a new look at an old challenge.

The authors have chosen to canvass the field and bring back the best practices from twelve institutions in nine states. The programs are large and small, old and new, and, best of all, diverse. For those looking for "take-home" value in a book, this is it! And the authors integrate material from each of the programs throughout the book, so it is not a typical "case study" approach.

The subject is a timely one, as the authors point out. The demographic forces faced by most community colleges today are enough to discourage even the most optimistic practitioners. But the Roueches learned long ago the value of the saying, "No more prizes for predicting rain, prizes only for building arks."

And arks they give us. Services to at-risk students are a necessity, as they demonstrate early in the

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book, and as every community college educator knows today. But then they go beyond the statement of the problem to explore how progressive programs around the country deal with the same forces felt by all. The result: a how-to analysis of the best practices currently available to deal with the problem that will not go away, and that more and more institutions will be dealing with more frequently in the decade ahead.

It was Newton who wrote, "If I have seen further it is by standing on the shoulders of giants." Not only have the Roueches built upon ther own previous work (the extensive bibliography contains a score of their own contributions), but the 19-page listing contains 335 other citations from the best researchers this nation has to offer. The work is surely a summation of all that has gone before, and points the way to the future.

The twelve selected programs were all nominated by at least one of six national organizations for awards, hence were prescreened. The directors of each were asked to describe the goals and objectives of each program, how it fits into the college organization, how students are identified, how faculty are selected, to highlight successful features, to describe instructional strategies proven critical to retention, and, importantly, how evaluation criteria are built into the design of the program, and what the current outlook is for the program's future.

The result is a striking description of the best America's community colleges have to offer. From these model practices the Roueches have distilled a series of recommendations. The overarching one is that all colleges must increase the support and the structure for an increasing at-risk student body. They point out the reasons for resistance: the intrinsic belief that students should have the freedom to choose, and the equally ingrained fear that enrollments will decrease if institutions are "hard-nosed" about their problem-students. Nonetheless, the authors present evidence from the literature and from the institutions that the opposite is the case: student retention (and success) are augmented.

Then they detail a series of policies which would increase the support and structure they say is necessary. These are steeped in the research literature and in the daily practices of the successful programs showcased in this volume. They include: working with youngsters long before they become community college students (as early as elementary school); bringing adults to campus for testing, counseling, discussion of available services such as financial aid and child care—in short, building an expectation of successful college attendance and increasing the contacts and linkages between institution and individual; requiring orientation of entering students to socialize and inculturate them to the norms and values of the institutions; abolishing late registration; making assessment and placement mandatory, rather than voluntary (it is surprising how few colleges do this even today); eliminating dual enrollment in basic skill and regular academic courses (sure to be controversial with both students and some faculty members); encouraging working students to reduce their academic loads; providing more comprehensive financial aid programs, not just while in the community colleges, but following them to the transfer institutions (and informing both students, and their parents at an early age of the availability of such assistance); establishing safety nets consisting of faculty mentors and peer supporters; requiring cross-discipline design of strategies to link reading, writing, and thinking skill development; evaluating student and program outcomes on a regular basis, and disseminating the results both within and outside of the institution; and others.

In short, this is a compendium involving all institutional participants, and supporting the African proverb that it "takes an entire village to raise a child." The holistic approach which is becoming more prevalent in medicine is proposed here, and it is refreshing to read.

It is also interesting to read. The authors have a felicitous style, probing and analytical, but pointed and practical too. The book is nicely laid out and a joy to look at and hold, as well as to digest.

This book must be read by researchers and practitioners alike. It is of value to Board members, faculty members, whether resistant or supportive, administrators at all levels, by students, by foundation executives and politicians alike, for they will be called upon to financially support such activities.

Reviews typically include weaknesses, but this reviewer would be hard pressed to detail any. The reader must decide for her or himself.

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Appraisal and Staff Development

Appraisal and Staff Development in Schools, **by Jeff Jones. London: David Fulton Publishers, 1993, 136 pp. $24.00.**

Reviewed by Helen M. Burnstad.

The British system of education is undergoing many changes including the one reflected by this handbook. The School Teacher Appraisal Regulations and Circular 12/91 (School Teacher Appraisal) issued by the DfE in July 1991 made appraisal a requirement for all teachers employed on a regular basis. This legislation clearly has had a major impact on changing the system(s) in Britain. The author, Dr. Jeff Jones, states in his introduction, "The central theme of this book is the effective management of staff development through appraisal." (p.1)

The book is designed to address issues at any level of the educational system from grade schools to colleges, so it covers some issues which may not be particularly pertinent to the readers of the SPOD Journal. It is a handbook and guide to the background of the appraisal system and the importance of enhancing the development of staff leading to effective schools. He presents samples and suggestions from programs which have been emplemented to date. Dr.Jones asserts, "There seems to be a cautious optimism in schools that appraisal, far from being the crude assessment of standards once feared by teachers, will in fact help bring about the development of professional skills and knowledge."(p.1)

Dr. Jones includes chapters dealing with the context for faculty appraisal and appraisal for professional development. Chapter Two includes analysis of the link between appraisal and staff development. Dr. Jones defines appraisal as part of the pattern of the school and outlines the management process as ensuring that teacher appraisal is planned, organized, monitored, positive, and developmental. He maintains the school which uses the appraisal effectively is "self-managing, self-developing and self-evaluating" in which "teachers freely exchange ideas, share concerns, are used to reflecting upon their own performance, contribute to discussion, take part in the process of decision-making, and have individual areas of strength and weakness identified and supported." (p.10) The figure provided on page 13 is useful.

The planning step followed by the cycle for appraisal as it affects teachers and headteachers is covered next. He includes an analysis of the components of appraisal, the statement and follow-up. In Chapters 7, 8, and 9, Dr. Jones has included material about the preparation for an appraisal, the process of the appraisal including sample forms, and the interview. His coverage of the communication techniques needed for effective appraisal includes specifics on establishing the interview climate, listening skills, questioning skills, and target setting. He recommends using the SMART format for action planning and staff development. His final chapters deal with managerial implications, monitoring and evaluation, and ends with questions and answers.

This publication is highly user-friendly and includes a number of figures, examples, and activities. The author is clear in his intent to provide a handbook, and has prepared a manual for the development of the appraisal process as necessitated by the legislation.

The book seems naive until the reader remembers that the British system is struggling with the design and implementation of an appraisal system for the first time. Clearly, this book has somewhat limited use for educators in the U.S. since appraisal is an integral part of our educational system. However, the author's insights to the reasons for appraisal and the systems to be used are interesting reminders of why we have adopted some of the steps we have. His emphasis on the link between appraisal, staff development and school improvement provides an especially strong argument for what we do. This book is probably not one that should be the first on your list of things to read, but does provide some interesting reminders and some insights to the necessary links we need to make to be effective in our own work.

Helen M. Burnstad, Director of Staff Development, Johnson County Community College, Overland Park, KS.

By Linc. Fisch

Advice for New Teachers

Will teaching become easier and easier with time and experience? Yes and No.

> *Teaching really isn't that hard. And with a little experience, you'll find that it gets easier and easier. Once you get the hang of it and learn the basics it doesn't take a lot of effort to be a good teacher. Be careful that you don't over-prepare. If you know the material, it'll just come natural to you and you'll enjoy it.*

That's the gist of a comment I heard recently. I think it was said in all honesty and sincerity. As with most advice, there are seams of truth in it. But those seams are overburdened with misleading information.

If the advice sounds familiar to you, you may have heard pieces of it from a TA supervisor, from a department chair, or at new teacher orientation. Maybe even you yourself have passed it along to a new teacher, as I know I have. Since the advice is so pervasive, it's worth examining in greater depth.

I think the reason we hear such advice so often is that we recognize that new teachers are somewhat apprehensive about facing their classes. Well-intentioned veteran teachers want to reassure the novices. There's nothing wrong in that.

But the truth is that almost *all* teachers experience apprehension when facing a new class, a new course, or a new teaching assignment—or in trying out something new in class. Just as with novice teachers, it's an apprehension born out of the unknown and born out of a desire to do well. For a few, apprehension may disappear in time. For most of us, though, it doesn't; it only becomes modified with experience.

Teachers become comfortable with that tension as a result of facing and handling it regularly. They find that once they are in the classroom and the day's activities get underway, the butterflies calm down. As each course progresses, the class begins to jell and teacher and students get on a roll (see the Chalkdust article "Getting a Class to Jell," *JSPOD*, Vol. 7, No. 2, pp. 87-88). But the feeling never goes away completely. And by recognizing that it's normal, we're able to deal with it more easily. In one sense, it's a good kind of stress that keeps us on our toes and continuing to try to do our best.

But be assured that there will still be an occasional bad day. Any of

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us can hit a real downer, perhaps through no fault of our own. Just never have two in a row. Ensure that the next class meeting is so good that it more than makes up for the temporary lapse (see the Chalkdust article "Seven Principles of Teaching Seldom Taught in Grad School," *JSPOD,* Vol. 10, No. 4, pp. 217-218).

Will learning basic teaching techniques and being well grounded in the material reduce the effort of teaching? The answer is both Yes and No—but more the latter. Certainly, knowing material and techniques is important in doing an effective teaching job, but that's just the beginning. You could learn scales and all the basics of playing the piano, along with all the notes of a sonata, but that would not be sufficient to play the piece well. It requires refinement of technique, emotional investment, and practice to the point of proficiency—and even then the performance can always get better. A concert presentation may seem effortless to an audience, but it is the culmination of a long process of preparation by the artist.

So it is with teaching. For example, you may easily comprehend the principles of asking questions that elicit student response, but the subtleties of applying the principles in a wide variety of circumstance comes only with constant effort. Teaching is a complex process that involves the imaginative integration of many particulars, not the application of simplistic formulas. Each class is different. Each student is different. Each moment is different. Therefore, each instructional move is unique. And by the time one feels comfortable in applying some techniques, one discovers other new things to try and the process of mastery begins anew.

It's commonly said that new teachers tend to over-prepare, but I've never seen any definitive evidence of this. I suppose, by definition, overdoing anything is unnecessary and undesirable. And we can argue that there is value in spontaneity in instructional activity, as well as value in flexibility to adjust to unforeseen circumstances that may arise. The line between well-prepared and over-prepared is often fine and difficult to determine. It's a judgment call that improves with experience. Good teachers have bad dreams all their lives about arriving at class unprepared; in large part those dreams reflect the subconscious anxiety that keeps such negative situations from actually happening.

My experience—and others verify it—suggests that the conscientious teacher is likely to *increase* preparation for teaching as time rolls on. I can recall in my first teaching years going to each class with a single 3x5 card containing on one side the next day's assignment and my notes (prepared the night before). Since I thought mathematics could be laid out so orderly, it seemed that all I needed was a set of words to trigger my mind and the rest would follow logically. By contrast, in my most recent classroom experiences, some 30 years later, I laid out my general plan and assignments for each three or four week period between exams and distributed an information sheet to students. At the end of each week, I'd review my plan for the next week. Two nights before a given class, I'd sketch out a "script" of several instructional scenes, complete with specific examples and the various strategies I'd employ. I tried to articulate my plan with the status of the class meeting we had earlier that day. The next night I'd make a few modifications and fill in additional details. For 10 or 15 minutes before class I'd do a final fast-speed mental run-through of what I wanted to accomplish and how I'd do it; in essence, I was getting myself in character for that class. Once in the classroom, I'd hardly glance at my three or four pages of notes because almost everything was fixed in my head by that time. Often I'd change the course of instructional activity in mid-class if circumstances warranted it. All that's a far cry from my early days with 3x5 cards.

Occasionally I've observed a colleague walk into class without notes, open a book, work the problems from the day's assignment, and when the bell rings walk out leaving the students to the next assignment contained on a sheet photocopied from last year's syllabus. It's very distressing to see teaching apparently taken so lightly. That kind of travesty seems to me to be the epitome of professional irresponsibility.

I'm not suggesting that good teaching requires an *enormous* amount of time, preparation, and effort. But it does require *substantial* amounts of those quantities, as befits the role that for most of us is the centrum of our professional lives. Doing one's best through the ever-enduring process of searching, winnowing, maturing, refining, and perfecting is the height of our ethical responsibility.

Some aspects of teaching do get easier and easier as we get the hang of it. But as most of us grow as teachers we become aware of the complexity of the role. We perceive and accept the greater teaching challenges that we encounter. We match the challenges with more and more effort. We are reinforced by the joy and exhilaration of facing them and succeeding. We glow in the satisfaction of seeing lights turn on in our students, from the rush that comes from knowing we've conducted a class session well. We do indeed enjoy this noble enterprise called teaching. May you enjoy it also.

Linc. Fisch taught for over 25 years in college, university, and professional school, and he served five years as an associate dean of students. He lives in Lexington, KY, and devotes his time to designing films and videos to trigger discussion, conducting workshops for college faculty, and writing this column and other educational pieces.

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